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ANCIENT HISTORY;

EXHIBITING

A SUMMARY VIEW

OF

PROGRESS, REVOLUTIONS, DECLINE, AND FALL,

OF THE

STATES AND NATIONS

OF

ANTIQUITY



BY JOHN ROBINSON, D. D.

in the County of Westmorland, and Author of the "Antiquities of Greece," "Theological Dictionary." &c.

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TERRA VETERIBUS NOTA, facing the title.

GRÆCIA ANTICUA, at page 207.

ITALIA ANTICUA, at page 326.

ROMANUM IMPERIUM, at page 441.

BRITANNIA ANTICUA, at page 574.

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ANCIENT HISTORY.

From the Creation to the Confusion of Tongues.

THE Sacred Writings give no particular description of the *first* creation of the heaven and the earth. Nor, indeed, was any other account requisite, than to inform mankind, that they *were* created by the immediate power of God. Suffice it, therefore, to observe, that, at the sovereign command of the Almighty, the cheerful light of day appeared; the firmament expanded, to divide the upper from the lower waters; the congregated floods retired to their destined bed; the dry land was crowned with a rich profusion of herbage, fruits, and flowers; the waters were replenished with an abundant variety of fish; the odoriferous air was fanned by the pinions of innumerable birds; the verdant meads were stocked with cattle; and every part of the earth was inhabited by its appropriate tribes. To complete, and truly to excel the whole, God created *man* of the dust of the ground, and infused into his body the breath of life, or immortality; in consequence of which, *man became a living soul*. The Almighty, also, formed woman out of the side of the man, whom he cast into a profound slumber for that purpose.

(B. C. 4004.) Having thus produced an exquisite and a beautiful system from an unformed chaos, God placed the man and his wife, whom he named Adam and Eve, in the garden of Eden, and gave them instructions to dress and to keep it. He allowed them the free use of the fruit with which the garden abounded, with the exception of a particular tree, which was called the tree of knowledge of good and evil, and of which if they presumed to eat, they would incur the penalty of inevitable death. Contrary, however, to the divine injunction, the woman, deceived by the subtlety of the serpent, ate of the forbidden fruit, and afterwards enticed her husband to participate in her crime. From that moment innocence



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all kinds of birds, beasts, and reptiles, by pairs and by sevens, entered the ark; and God opened the windows of heaven, and poured the inundating torrents on the earth for forty days and forty nights without intermission. The waters increased gradually during five months, and overwhelmed all mankind, except those who were in the ark, and who, after being inclosed in this vessel, during the space of three hundred and sixty-five days of our present computation, came forth in pursuance of the divine command.

(B. C. 2347.) Impressed with the most lively gratitude to the author and preserver of his existence, Noah, immediately upon his landing, erected an altar upon mount Ararat, where the ark rested, and offered a burnt sacrifice of every clean beast and of every clean fowl. This act of piety was highly pleasing to God, who graciously affirmed, that he would no more curse the earth for man's sake; but that, on the contrary, it should retain all its privileges, and enjoy an uninterrupted succession of seasons, till the period of its final destruction. As a token of his inviolable decree, the Almighty promised to set his bow in the clouds when it rained, that the posterity of Adam might look upon it, and contemplate the effects of his sovereign mercy.

The Creator of the universe bestowed the warmest blessings and the most inestimable marks of affection on Noah, who descended from the mountain, applied himself to husbandry, and planted a vineyard. Having drunk too freely of the juice of the grape, he became intoxicated, and lay carelessly uncovered within his tent. In this situation he was discovered by Ham, the father of Canaan, who made him the subject of derision; but Shem and Japhet being modest, and tender of the patriarch's honour, covered him with a garment. In return for this, they were remunerated with an ample blessing, whilst the posterity of Ham were loaded with the most dreadful curses.

(B. C. 1998.) Japhet, who was the eldest son of Noah, was pathetically blessed by that patriarch, for his pious behaviour, in the following terms: "God shall enlarge Japhet, and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem, and Canaan shall be his servant." This prophecy has been fully accomplished in the great possessions which fell to the posterity of Japhet in different parts of the



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and abundantly supplies the defect which must otherwise inevitably result from the want of rain. Though it is now well known, that the sources of this river are in Ethiopia, yet the ancients were so ignorant on this subject, that they thought it impossible to discover them. The Nile enters Egypt almost under the tropic of Cancer, and precipitates itself over seven successive falls or cataracts. It passes through Upper and Lower Egypt, divides itself into two large arms a little below Memphis, and subdividing itself into seven channels, mingles its waters with the ocean.

The great increase of this river is occasioned by the heavy rains which fall in Ethiopia. The waters of the Nile spread slowly over the lands, which they gradually cover, and are conducted to the more distant parts, by various means which the Egyptians have been taught by necessity and practice. They remain four months almost stagnant; and that they may not flow off too rapidly, before they have deposited their fertilizing mud, during that time a sea-wind blows, by which they are detained. It is not lawful to cut the trenches for the reception of the water, till the river has attained its height, which is twenty-four feet.*

Egypt exhibits, at two seasons of the year, two most beautiful and magnificent prospects. If a man ascend some lofty mountain, or one of the great pyramids of Grand Cairo, in the month of July or August, he beholds with amazement a spacious sea, spotted with innumerable towns and villages, intersected with several causeys, and occasionally contrasted with groves and orchards; while at the same time, a magnificent display of sylvan and mountainous scenery bounds the delightful view, and terminates a most exquisite horizon, at the utmost distance which the eye can possibly discover. On the contrary, if the view be taken in the months of January and February, the whole country resembles one extensive meadow, clothed with the finest verdure, and enamelled with an infinite variety of flowers; the plains are embellished with innumerable flocks and herds; the mild zephyrs are literally impregnated with the sweet odours that rise from the orange and lemon blossoms, and the

* According to Mr. Brown, the rise of the Nile is still much the same as in the most ancient times.

air is altogether so pure and salubrious, that a more healthful and agreeable cannot be found in the universe.

The Egyptian husbandman has not the laborious task of ploughing, digging, or breaking the clods; nor has he any occasion for manure, as the Nile, by bringing with it a profusion of mud or slime, fattens the earth, and renders it exceedingly fruitful. When, therefore, the river has subsided, he mingles a little sand with the earth to abate its strength, and then sows the seed with little trouble, and at an inconsiderable expence. The time of sowing is generally in October and November; within two months the ground is covered with a rich variety of grain and pulse; and in March and April the harvest is gathered.

Lower Egypt extends from Heptanomis to the Mediterranean, and contains, besides the Delta, Mareotis and Alexandria to the west, and Casiotis and Augustamnica, with some other territories, towards the east. That part which, from its triangular figure, has obtained the name of the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet, or the Delta, is encompassed by the arms of the Nile, and lies between the Canopic branch to the west, and the Pelusian to the east.

The name Mizraim, by which Egypt is designated in Scripture, renders it probable, that the aboriginal inhabitants of this country were descended from the son of Ham, the second son of Noah.

In Egypt, the royal dignity was hereditary; but the sovereign was obliged to model his actions after the established laws of the realm, as well in matters of a private nature, as in the management of state affairs. His education was not intrusted to his parents, but to the priests, who were grave personages well instructed in religion and the laws. No person was admitted into his immediate service, who had not received an honourable birth and a liberal education. By religious exercises, by example, and by the daily recital of the consequences of noble or base actions, the prince was taught, that God would reward virtue and punish vice. His employments were appointed for every hour of the day; the form of his dress was prescribed; the times for the repetition of his exercises were fixed; and the dishes of his table regulated. Whilst the monarch lived, he was revered as a god; but, at his death, he submitted to the lot of other mortals.

All the people sat in judgment over him ; and, if his good did not exceed his evil actions, he was, in some cases, disgracefully refused the usual honours of sepulture.

Each nome or province had its respective governor ; and the lands were divided between the king, the priests, and the soldiers. The priests, whose rank was next to that of the sovereign, were greatly esteemed and venerated by the whole body of the people, not only for their attendance on the worship of the gods, but also for their prudence, skill, and erudition. They enjoyed several peculiar advantages, being exempt from all taxes, free from domestic cares, and receiving a daily allowance of consecrated bread, beef, geese, and wine.

The Egyptian husbandmen have always been very skilful in tillage, and in the management and breeding of cattle. They still practise their ancient method of hatching eggs in ovens, and thus raise prodigious numbers of fowls.

Their judges were to be men of irreproachable morals. The members of the first tribunal of the nation, whose number was thirty, were taken from the principal cities ; because they were supposed to possess more knowledge and information. They elected a president from their own number, who, as a mark of his dignity, wore about his neck a chain of gold, from which was suspended the image of Truth, composed of precious stones. The parties pleaded their causes in person. The plaintiff presented his complaint in writing, a copy of which was given to the defendant, who delivered an answer to it. The court then taking the two writings into consideration, passed judgment, the president, without speaking a word, turning his brilliant image of Truth towards the party, in whose favour the trial was decided.

The *laws* and *institutions* of the Egyptians seemed to excel those of all other nations ; but when we contemplate the objects, modes, and consequences, of their *religion*, we are insensibly led to deplore the blindness and ignorance of their hearts, which were enveloped in the dark clouds of bigotry and superstition.

The principal gods of the Egyptians were Osiris* and

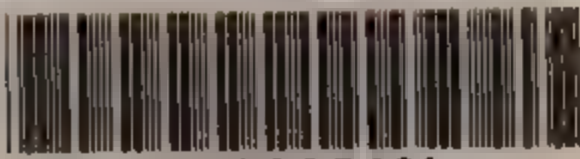
* Osiris was sometimes represented by a sceptre and an eye, to signify his power and providence ; sometimes by a hawk, and in latter ages by a disgusting human figure ; but the bull was his chief living representative.



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Philopator, whom some affirm to have committed the crime of parricide, that he might obtain the crown, and who proved a most debauched prince. He was also denominated Tryphon, from the effeminacy of his diversions, because he used to walk through the streets on the Bacchanal solemnities, with a wreath of ivy on his head, like the galli, or priests of Cybele. At the instigation of his prime minister Sosibius, he caused his brother Magas to be put to death; and this act of barbarity was followed by others of a similar nature. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, to whom Euergetes had given an asylum in Egypt, opposing the murder of Magas, incurred the suspicion of the king and his courtiers, who abandoned themselves entirely to licentiousness and debauchery. Cleomenes and his followers were imprisoned; but effecting their escape, they endeavoured to excite the people to a revolt, and were put to death.

(B. C. 208.) The king, having received an affront from the Jews, published an edict, which commanded them either to adore the pagan deities, or to suffer themselves to be marked with a hot iron, which would imprint on their foreheads a leaf of ivy, the symbol of Bacchus. Only a few preferred apostacy to infamy. The rest were brought in chains to Alexandria, where they were to be trodden to death by elephants, on account of their resistance to the will of Philopator. The time was appointed for the tragical catastrophe; but the king being much inebriated, the execution was deferred till another day. When the elephants were let loose on the trembling prisoners, those terrific animals, instead of assailing the Jews, turned the whole of their rage on the spectators, soldiers, and assistants, of whom they destroyed great numbers. This, together with some singular appearances in the air, so terrified Philopator, that he liberated the Jews, and publicly acknowledged the power of their God; whose wrath he endeavoured to deprecate by reinstating his injured worshippers in their former privileges, bestowing upon them many favours, and loading them with presents at their departure.

Ptolemy having exhausted a very strong constitution by intemperance and debauchery, died in the thirty-seventh year of his age. He was one of the most wicked princes that ever governed a kingdom. He commenced his reign with the murder of an innocent brother, and terminated

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE MAPS.

TERRA VETERIBUS NOTA, facing the title.

GRÆCIA ANTICUA, at page 207.

ITALIA ANTICUA, at page 326.

ROMANUM IMPERIUM, at page 441.

BRITANNIA ANTICUA, at page 574.

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ANCIENT HISTORY.

From the Creation to the Confusion of Tongues.

THE Sacred Writings give no particular description of the *first* creation of the heaven and the earth. Nor, indeed, was any other account requisite, than to inform mankind, that they *were* created by the immediate power of God. Suffice it, therefore, to observe, that, at the sovereign command of the Almighty, the cheerful light of day appeared; the firmament expanded, to divide the upper from the lower waters; the congregated floods retired to their destined bed; the dry land was crowned with a rich profusion of herbage, fruits, and flowers; the waters were replenished with an abundant variety of fish; the odoriferous air was fanned by the pinions of innumerable birds; the verdant meads were stocked with cattle; and every part of the earth was inhabited by its appropriate tribes. To complete, and truly to excel the whole, God created *man* of the dust of the ground, and infused into his body the breath of life, or immortality; in consequence of which, *man became a living soul*. The Almighty, also, formed woman out of the side of the man, whom he cast into a profound slumber for that purpose.

(B. C. 4004.) Having thus produced an exquisite and a beautiful system from an unformed chaos, God placed the man and his wife, whom he named Adam and Eve, in the garden of Eden, and gave them instructions to dress and to keep it. He allowed them the free use of the fruit with which the garden abounded, with the exception of a particular tree, which was called the tree of knowledge of good and evil, and of which if they presumed to eat, they would incur the penalty of inevitable death. Contrary, however, to the divine injunction, the woman, deceived by the subtlety of the serpent, ate of the forbidden fruit, and afterwards enticed her husband to participate in her crime. From that moment innocence

Cleopatra had borne to him, to be put to death, and his mangled limbs to be sent in a box to his mother. These acts of cruelty served only to inflame the minds of the people, who resolved to prevent the tyrant from re-ascending the throne; and (B. C. 129.) Cleopatra raised a powerful army, which attacked a numerous body of mercenaries belonging to the king. The forces of Physcon, however, defeated those of Cleopatra, and the tyrant returned to Alexandria, where he died in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-ninth of his reign. Notwithstanding his oppressive and iniquitous conduct, he was a patron of literature, conversed with facility on all literary subjects, and enriched the Alexandrian library with many valuable books. By his niece Cleopatra he had two sons, Lathurus and Alexander, and three daughters, Cleopatra, Selene, and Tryphæna.

Physcon left the crown to his widow, who might appoint as her successor either of her sons she thought proper. Accordingly, she made choice of Alexander, the younger, as being the easier to govern; but the people obliged her to recal Lathurus from Cyprus, whither he had been banished during his father's life. Lathurus, however, had not long enjoyed the regal dignity before his mother found means to occasion a revolt among the Alexandrians (B. C. 107.), who rose in a general tumult against their sovereign, and would have torn him in pieces, if he had not fortunately embarked in a vessel, which immediately set sail, and carried him beyond the impending danger. Cleopatra instantly sent for Alexander, and having caused him to be proclaimed king of Egypt, obliged Lathurus to be content with the island of Cyprus.

Soon after this revolution, the inhabitants of Ptolemais being driven to the utmost extremities by Alexander Jannæus, king of the Jews, sought the assistance of Lathurus, who went immediately to their relief. But they, fearing that the alliance of Ptolemy Lathurus might prove as prejudicial to their interests as the enmity of Alexander, resolved to rely entirely on their own exertions, and not to admit any auxiliaries. Lathurus, therefore, irritated at their conduct, turned his arms against them, as well as against Alexander, and defeated the Jews with great slaughter. Having taken up his quarters, after the engagement, in the neighbouring villages, he caused all the female and infant inhabitants to be murdered, and

intilated limbs to be put into boiling caldrons, as if signed to make a repast for his army. This abomination was intended to strike the deepest terror into us, by representing their enemies as cannibals.

In the mean time, Ptolemy Alexander, the younger, suffered all the restraints of slavery, under the appearance of sovereign authority; and having failed to make his escape from Egypt, the queen formed a conspiracy against his life, which Alexander opposed against that of the projector. As soon as it was known that Ptolemy had caused his mother to be assassinated, the Egyptians rose in a tumult, (B. C. 89.) and drove him ignominiously from his dominions, which they gave to his brother Lathurus. Alexander, endeavoured to return to Cyprus, was killed, and left a son, also named Alexander. Lathurus died, after eleven years jointly with his mother in Egypt, and in Cyprus, and seven alone in Alexandria after the death of Cleopatra.

On the decease of this prince, the sceptre devolved to his legitimate offspring Cleopatra*; but Sylla, who at that time perpetual dictator at Rome, sent Alexander, the nephew of Lathurus, to assume the reins of government. On his arrival in Egypt, he was persuaded by the princess, who had been placed on the throne months before that period; but Cleopatra being an object of aversion to her consort, either on account of her person, or her share in the regal dignity, he caused her to be assassinated nineteen days after his arrival. After this barbarous transaction, Alexander reigned fifteen years, and rendered himself so obnoxious to his subjects, that they at length expelled him. He retired to the city of Tyre, whither he had sent great treasures, and where he died. By his last will he bequeathed the Romans heirs to his wealth and his dominions.

The Roman senators, however, considered the will invalid, as far as it related to the kingdom, but were for the effects which the deceased prince had bequeathed to their republic.

58.) The Egyptians bestowed the crown on

In many obscurities in the Egyptian history, it is necessary that the males of the royal family had the name of Ptolemy, and the females that of Cleopatra, though they were distinguished from each other by proper denominations.

Ptolemy Auletes*, the natural son of Lathurus, who knowing that he possessed only a contested title to his new dignity, purchased an alliance with the Romans at the price of six thousand talents, which he could not raise without burdening his people with very heavy taxes. This occasioned a general discontent throughout the kingdom; and the king refusing a popular request respecting the isle of Cyprus, the people revolted from their allegiance, and demanded vengeance on the object of their aversion. But Auletes privately withdrew from Alexandria, and embarked for Rhodes, with an intention of imploring the assistance of the Romans. At Rhodes he met with Cato, who would have dissuaded him from his purpose of soliciting the aid of the Roman people, and who advised him to return to Egypt, and to endeavour by a wise and moderate government to regain the affections of his subjects. (B. C. 57.) Auletes, however, pursued his journey to Rome, and by bribes and promises so ingratiated himself with the principal men of the city, that he was on the point of obtaining a large army, when C. Cato, an enterprising young man, read, or pretended to read, in the Sybilline books, the following words: "If a king of Egypt shall apply to you for succour, assist him, but not with an army: if you adopt violent measures, you must expect great misfortunes." To obviate this prediction, which was evidently forged, Pompey advised Ptolemy to recur to Gabinius, who acted as proconsul of Syria, and who undertook to reinstate the king for the sum of about two millions sterling.

In the mean time, the Egyptians had placed the diadem on the head of Berenice, the daughter of Auletes, who married Archelaus, son of the high-priest of Comana, but the pretended son of Mithridates the Great. Gabinius entered Egypt with a numerous army, and was met and engaged by Archelaus, whose troops were cut in pieces, and himself was taken prisoner. Archelaus, however, obtained his liberty, on paying a considerable ransom to Gabinius, who demanded from Auletes fresh sums of money for prosecuting the war. At length, Archelaus was killed in an engagement, and Auletes re-settled on his throne. Berenice was sacrificed to the resentment of her inhuman father;

* He was called Auletes, because he prided himself on his skill in playing on the flute.

and most of the wealthy citizens were put to death by command of the king, who confiscated their estates, that he might pay the reward which he had promised to Gabinius. Every species of violence was daily practised with impunity; but neither the authority of the monarch, nor the presence of the Roman soldiers, could prevent the populace from avenging an insult done to the *gods* of their country; for a Roman soldier having killed a *cat*, the Alexandrians rose in a general insurrection, and, in spite of the Roman guards, put the offender to death.

C. Rabirius Posthumus, who had lent Auletes the greatest part of the money which he had borrowed at Rome, accepted the office of receiver-general, that he might pay himself as he collected the revenues. Auletes, however, soon found a sufficient pretence to have him arrested; and Rabirius was glad to escape from prison, and to quit Egypt, without receiving his money.

Auletes died four years after his re-establishment in the kingdom, and thirty after he had first assumed the government. He left two sons, both called Ptolemy, and two daughters, Cleopatra and Arsinoë; and he bequeathed his crown to his eldest son and daughter, whom he commanded to marry, and to govern with equal authority. And because they were both under age, he recommended them to the Romans, who appointed Pompey the young prince's guardian.

(B. C. 48.) As Ptolemy, the successor of Auletes, was a minor, under Pothinus an eunuch, prime-minister, and Achillas commander of the army, these men, with a self-interested view, deprived Cleopatra* of her share in the government. This princess, whose high spirit could never bear an insult, quitted the kingdom, and retired immediately into Syria, where she raised a powerful army, which she led into Egypt against her husband and his ministers. While both armies were in sight of each other, between mount Casius and Pelusium, Pompey having lost the battle of Pharsalia, was seen approaching the coast of Egypt, and sent to his pupil Ptolemy to request permission to enter his kingdom. The ministers of the king, however, caused Pompey to be assassinated, in order to secure the friendship of Julius Cæsar.

* This was the famous Cleopatra, who had afterwards a considerable share in occasioning the civil wars of Rome.

In the mean time, Cæsar being informed of the course of the unfortunate Roman, pursued him, and arrived at Alexandria just as the news of the perfidious assassination of Pompey reached that city. On being presented with the head and ring of his deceased rival, he turned aside with horror, melted into tears, and ordered the head to be interred with the accustomed solemnities. Cæsar demanded payment of the money which was due from Auletes for obtaining for him an alliance with the Romans; and that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should disband their armies, and appear before him for the decision of their difference. Having summoned a general assembly, he caused the will of Auletes to be publicly read, and decreed, as guardian and arbitrator, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should reign jointly in Egypt; and that Ptolemy the younger son, and Arsinoë the younger daughter, should jointly exercise the regal authority in Cyprus, which the Romans then possessed. Pothinus, however, dreading the resentment of Cleopatra, requested Achilles to attack Cæsar with his army, and drive him from the metropolis. In consequence of this, several actions took place between the Egyptians and Romans, in which the latter were generally victorious; and Ptolemy himself was drowned in the Nile, in attempting to escape from the conquering army. Cæsar finally succeeded in bestowing the crown on Cleopatra, whom he loved very much, and whom, through motives of policy, he obliged to marry her younger brother Ptolemy, then only eleven years of age. At length, the conqueror of Pharsalia tore himself from the arms of this enchantress, and left with her a son, called Cæsarion.

Cleopatra caused her husband to be poisoned. After the death of Cæsar, she openly espoused the party of the triumvirate; but being suspected of having aided Cassius, she was summoned to appear before Marc Antony at Tarsus in Cilicia. Antony, however, could not resist the fascinating charms of the queen, who soon obtained an absolute authority over him. Every day she invented new pleasures, and, like another Circe, supplied him with large draughts of voluptuousness. Having laid a considerable wager, that she could expend more than 50,000*l.* on one repast, she caused one of the pearls which she wore in her ears, and which was valued at the above sum, to be dissolved in an acid, and then swallowed it. She

would have melted the other in a similar manner, if Plancus had not diverted her from her design.

(B. C. 39.) Antony sailed into Italy, with two hundred ships, against Octavius; but a reconciliation being effected, he married Octavia, the widow of Marcellus, and sister of Octavius. Antony, however, soon hastened back to Alexandria, where he again indulged, without restraint, in every species of luxury and dissipation. He conducted himself entirely by the counsels of Cleopatra, and, at her desire, placed with her on the throne of Egypt her son Cæsarion, whom she had borne to Cæsar. Antony also added to that kingdom Cyrenaica, the island of Cyprus, Cælo-Syria, Ituria, Phœnicia, and a great part of Crete and Cilicia. To three children whom he had by her, he assigned whole kingdoms, some already conquered, and others which he expected to subdue.

In compliance with the advice of some of his partisans, Antony declared war against Octavius, and at the same time sent a divorce to Octavia; but, instead of leading his valiant soldiers to the field, when victory might reasonably have been expected, he still continued to banquet and revel with Cleopatra. (B. C. 31.) At length, Octavius having obtained a powerful force, the two hostile armies prepared to engage, and the fleets put to sea. A memorable and decisive naval battle took place at the mouth of the Ambracian gulph, near the city of Actium, in sight of both armies. The victory was for some time doubtful, and was disputed with great vigour and resolution; but in the middle of the engagement, Cleopatra drew off the whole Egyptian squadron; and her ill-fated lover immediately followed her. To complete the misfortunes of Antony, the army revolted to his enemy.

After many fruitless proposals, Antony sent deputies to demand his life of Octavius, on the shameful condition of residing at Athens as a private person, provided Cleopatra and her children might retain the government of Egypt; but this deputation was equally unsuccessful with the former. Cleopatra, however, entered into a private negotiation with Octavius, who insinuated that she ought to abandon and even kill Antony; and she at length consented to deliver up to him the most important places in Egypt. Incensed at the treachery of the queen, Antony wished to sacrifice her to his resentment; but she shut herself up, with two female attendants and a slave, in a high monu-

ment which she had built, and then caused it to be published that she had killed herself. Immediately Antony's violent transport of anger was converted into the deepest grief; and he fell on his sword, and gave himself a wound of which he afterwards died.

Cleopatra having heard of his desperate state, sent to inform him that she was still alive, and wished to see him. On receiving this intelligence, Antony suffered his wound to be dressed, and by means of ropes was conveyed by the queen and her two female attendants into the apartment of Cleopatra, where he died soon after. The queen obstinately persisted in remaining in the monument, which she would suffer no person to enter; but while one of the negotiators of Octavius engaged her attention with proposals, another entered the window through which Antony had been conveyed. Finding herself surprised, she attempted to stab herself with a poniard, but was prevented.

Cleopatra employed all her arts to inspire Octavius with the same sentiments towards her as had before inflamed the hearts of Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony. Octavius, however, did not appear to be affected either with her person or her conversation, and merely advised her to take courage, and to rest assured that his intentions were equitable. The queen, therefore, being convinced that she was designed as an ornament to the victor's triumph, resolved to avoid approaching infamy by a voluntary death, (B. C. 30.) and applying an asp* to her left arm, sunk immediately into a lethargy, and expired. Thus ended the family of Ptolemy Lagus, the founder of the second Egyptian monarchy. Cleopatra spoke the Greek and Latin languages, and conversed fluently with Ethiopians, Troglodites, Jews, Arabians, Medes, and Persians, without the assistance of an interpreter. She was capable of the most ardent attachments, but ambition was her ruling passion, and to it she sacrificed her love, her kingdom, and her life. After her death, Egypt was reduced to a Roman province, and governed by a prætor sent from Rome.

* A kind of serpent peculiar to Egypt and Libya, and of a venomous nature.

Questions on the History of Egypt.

What are the situation, extent, and boundaries of Egypt?

Into how many parts may Egypt be divided?

Which is the first division, or most southern part of Egypt?

From what did Heptanomis, or middle Egypt, derive its name, and what part did it comprehend?

What did Sesostris erect in the city of Heliopolis?

Did Egypt formerly abound with obelisk? and what were their form, position, and decorations?

What did the ancients class among the wonders of the world?

How long have the three principal pyramids in Egypt existed?

Where is the largest situated, and what are its height, form, and dimensions?

What is the ascent to this pyramid, and what does the pyramid contain?

Where is the second pyramid situated, and in what does it differ from the last mentioned?

Where is the third pyramid?

Who are supposed to have been the builders of the pyramids?

How does it appear that it is at least three thousand years since they were erected?

What is generally thought to have been the design of these pyramids?

Of what do Aristotle and Pliny think them to have been the work?

What appears to have been the true design of them?

What numbers of workmen were employed, and what time and money expended, in erecting the first pyramid?

Of what do these structures afford incontrovertible evidence?

What seems to have been the design of the Labyrinth, and what does it contain?

What does Herodotus say of the lake Moeris; what was its design, and what is its present circumference?

Which is the greatest wonder of Egypt?

What effects does the Nile produce; where are its sources; where does it enter Egypt; and how is it divided before it joins the sea?

By what is the great increase of the Nile occasioned?

What beautiful prospects does Egypt exhibit at two seasons of the year?

What are the labours of the Egyptian husbandmen?

What is the time of sowing, and of harvest?

What is the extent of Lower Egypt?

What is the situation of the Delta, and from what is its name derived?

How does it appear that the aboriginal inhabitants of Egypt were descended from Ham, the second son of Noah?

Was royalty hereditary in Egypt?

How was the sovereign educated? By whom was he surrounded?

What was he taught? How were his employments apportioned? How was he revered when living, and regarded when dead?

Between whom were the lands divided?

How were the priests esteemed, and what advantages did they enjoy?

Were the Egyptians skilful in tillage?

What is the mode of hatching eggs?

What was to be the character of their judges?

Of whom was the first tribunal of the nation composed?

In what manner did the president decide?

What was the character of the laws, institutions, and religion of the Egyptians?

What were the principal and other gods of the Egyptians?

How were Osiris and Isis represented?

Did the Egyptians observe the time of each man's nativity, and for what purpose?

What oracles were there in Egypt?

To whom was education confided? and in what did fathers instruct their children?

By what name did the Egyptians designate sepulchres, and by what palaces?

How were the dead embalmed?

What preceded the interment of the dead?

Was geometry first practised in Egypt?

Was arithmetic cultivated in this country?

Was astronomy an invention of the Egyptians?

What was the progress of the science of medicine?

What was the commerce of Egypt?

What is the language of Egypt?

Who was the first king of Egypt, and what was the nature of the country before his time?

After a long succession of kings of the same race, by whom was Egypt enslaved?

By whom were they expelled from Lower Egypt?

What was the character of Osymandyas?

Who transferred the seat of royalty from Thebes to Memphis?

Whom did Nitocris succeed, and what was her character and actions?

What public works did Moeris execute?

What were the education and achievements of Sesostri?

How did he treat the kings and chiefs of the nations which he conquered?

What was the nature of his death?

By whom was Sesostri succeeded, and what was the affliction under which he suffered?

By whom was Egypt united to Ethiopia?

After Mendes, and a long anarchy, who succeeded to the throne?

What was the conduct of Rhampsinitus, the son and successor of Proteus?

What was the character of Cheops, and for what actions is he known?

By whom was Cheops succeeded?

What was the disposition of Mycerinus, the son of Cheops, and what did the oracle at Butus predict concerning him?

For what was Gnephactus renowned?

By what surname was Bocchoris known?

By what public work, and law, was Asychis distinguished?

By what means did Sabbaco ascend the throne, whom did he drive from it, and for what reason did he abdicate the sovereignty?

Who built the famous Labyrinth? What did Psammetichus perform, and what was the character of his reign?

What did the successor of Psammetichus attempt? whither did his fleets sail? what people did he conquer? and by whom was he vanquished?

On what subject did the Greeks consult Psammis, and into what country did he undertake an expedition?

Who was Apries, and what was his character? What war did he resume? and by whom was he put to death?

Why did his subjects treat Amasis with disrespect, and what were the means he employed to convince them of their error? What were the actions of Amasis?

What important events took place in the reign of Psammenitus; what were the actions and conduct of Cambyses in his invasions of Egypt; and what was the feelings of the Egyptians, in consequence of the severities practised by the Persian monarch?

In what reign of the kings of Persia, did the Egyptians revolt from the yoke of Persia? What king of Egypt opposed the Persians, but at length was defeated and crucified? What was the fate of his immediate successors?

What was the cause that Tachos could not establish himself on the throne of Egypt?

After Tachos, by whom was the regal dignity assumed? Did the Persians again conquer Egypt; and what became of Nectanebis? What prophecy was fulfilled; and at what time did Egypt cease to be a province of Persia?

Who was invested with the government of Egypt after the death of Alexander the Great, and of what country was he a native?

What took place in Egypt in the first year of the one hundred and twenty-fourth Olympiad?

What number of books did the famous library at Alexandria contain, and by whom was it founded, and by whom destroyed?

Whom did Ptolemy Lagus, or Soter, associate with him in the government? Why, and by whom, was he first called Soter? What was the example which he left to his successors?

What was the character of his son Ceraunus?

On what did Ptolemy Philadelphus determine on coming to the throne of Egypt?

What was the conduct of Philadelphus towards the Romans?

Did he protect the sciences? and what public works did he construct?

To whom do we owe the Greek translation of the Old Testament, called the Septuagint?

At what age did Philadelphus die, and by what was his death occasioned?

What was the first act of Ptolemy Euergetes, after his accession to the throne?

How did he occupy his time after the invasion of Syria?

What is recorded of his wife Berenice?

Did Euergetes, whilst at Jerusalem, offer sacrifices to the God of Israel?

Who was his collector of taxes in Judea and the neighbouring provinces, and during what time did he hold the situation?

Was Euergetes possessed of any share of erudition?

By whom was Euergetes succeeded?

Why was Ptolemy Philopater denominated Tryphon?

At whose instigation did he cause his brother Magas to be put to death, and what were the consequences?

Why did Philopater order the Jews of Egypt to adore the Pagan deities?

Did they obey the edict?

Why did Philopater recal the edict, and acknowledge the power of the God of Israel?

At what age did Philopater die, and what was his character?

- At what age did his son Ptolemy Epiphanes ascend the throne ?
 Who attempted to usurp the regency ?
 Whom did the Romans depute for that purpose ?
 At what age was Epiphanes solemnly crowned ?
 Of whom did he become the prey ? Why was he put to death ? And what children did he leave ?
 Under whose guardianship did Ptolemy Philometer ascend the throne ?
 By whom was he taken prisoner, and during his absence, who was raised to the throne ?
 How did the two brothers, Philometer and Physcon, reign after the return of the former ?
 What were the terms of the accommodation which the Romans negotiated between the two brothers ?
 How was it observed ?
 Where died Philometer ; what was his character ; and why did he assume the name of Philometer ?
 What took place after the death of Philometer ?
 Of what cruel act was Physcon guilty ?
 Why did the Egyptians change the name of Euergetes, which Physcon had assumed, into that of Lakergetes ?
 What was the character of Physcon ?
 What was the opinion of the Roman ambassadors with respect to Egypt ?
 After divorcing his wife Cleopatra, whom did Physcon marry ?
 What diabolical act exasperated the people, and obliged Physcon to retire to Cyprus ?
 Did Physcon return to Alexandria ?
 Was he a patron of literature ?
 What sons and daughters did he leave at his death, and by whom was he succeeded ?
 Did Lathurus long retain the sovereignty ?
 What happened to the inhabitants of Ptolemais ?
 What happened to Ptolemy Alexander ? and who obtained the throne after his death ?
 How long did Lathurus reign in Egypt, and in Cyprus ?
 To whom at his death did the crown devolve ?
 By what names, in the Egyptian history, were the males and females of the royal family distinguished ?
 Who caused Cleopatra to be assassinated, and how long after did he retain the sovereignty ?
 To whom did Alexander bequeath his wealth and dominions ?
 On whom did the Egyptians now bestow the crown ?
 Why did Ptolemy take the name of Auletes ?
 What occasioned a revolt of the Egyptians, and to whom did Auletes apply for assistance ?
 Did he obtain the aid of a Roman army, or in what manner was he assisted ?
 On whom, in the mean time, had the Egyptians conferred the crown ?
 Did Auletes regain possession of the throne, and what was the fate of his daughter Berenice and her husband Archelaus ?
 How did Auletes now treat the Egyptians ; and did they submit quietly to the acts of violence which were practised ?
 How did the Egyptians avenge the insult offered to their gods ?
 What was the conduct of Auletes to C. Rabirius Posthumus ?
 How long did Auletes reign ?

To whom did he bequeath his crown at his death ?

To whose care were they recommended ?

By whom was Cleopatra deprived of her share in the government ?

Who was this Cleopatra, and where did she raise an army to combat her husband and his ministers ?

By whose advice, and for what purpose, was Pompey put to death ?

What was the conduct of Julius Cæsar on being presented with the head and ring of Pompey ?

How did Cæsar decide between Ptolemy and Cleopatra, and the younger Ptolemy and his sister Arsinoë ?

What was the result of the actions between the Egyptians and Romans ? and whom did Cæsar oblige Cleopatra to marry after the death of her former husband ?

Had Cleopatra a son to Cæsar ?

By whom was Ptolemy the younger, the husband of Cleopatra, poisoned ?

Why was Cleopatra summoned to appear before Marc Antony at Tarsus in Cilicia, and what authority over him did she obtain ?

By what means did Cleopatra expend 50,000l on a repast ?

Whither did Marc Antony go after his reconciliation with Octavius ? Whom did he place with Cleopatra on the throne of Egypt ? What countries did he add to that kingdom ? and what did Antony assign to the three children which Cleopatra bore to him ?

Against whom did Antony declare war, and to whom send a divorce ? What was his subsequent conduct, and what the result of the battle of Actium ?

What did Antony condescend to ask of Octavius ? what was the advice of Octavius to Cleopatra ? What was Cleopatra's conduct ? and how was Antony affected by the news of her death ?

Did Antony, after stabbing himself, live to see Cleopatra again ? What did Cleopatra attempt when she found herself surprised by the negociators of Octavius ?

Was Octavius ensnared by the arts of Cleopatra ? What did she apply to occasion her death ? What languages did she speak ? What was her ruling passion ? In whom ended the family of Ptolemy Lagus ?

When was Egypt reduced to a Roman province ?



MOAB.

Lot, the progenitor of the Moabites, was the nephew of Abraham, who carried him from Haran in Mesopotamia into the land of Canaan, whence they were compelled by famine to remove into Egypt. When they separated, Abraham resigned the plain of Jordan to Lot, who fixed his abode in the vicinage of Sodom, and afterwards in the city itself. He continued to reside in Sodom, till the Deity, offended with the unnatural wickedness of the place, sent two angels to destroy it. Fleeing with his wife and two daughters, from this execrable country, he went to the mountains on the east of the Dead Sea, where he dwelt in

a cave. In this solitude, the two young women, fearing that they should die childless, contrived to have issue by their father; and from their incestuous commerce proceeded two sons, one of whom was named Moab, the father of the Moabites.

The descendants of Lot settled in the country bordering on the above-mentioned mountains, which some say was a part of Cœlo-Syria, and others Arabia; and having driven out the Emim, the ancient inhabitants, they possessed themselves of a small tract of land, which they called Moab. The capital was denominated Ar. Their government was monarchical; their religion, a compound of Judaism and idolatry; and their chief employments were of a pastoral nature.

(B. C. 1451.) Balak, the son of Zippor, enjoyed the regal dignity when the Israelites were encamped in a part of their own acquisitions, called "The Plains of Moab." Alarmed at the approach of a strong and victorious people whom he was not able to resist, Balak sent messengers to request that Balaam, a famous prophet, or diviner, in whose prayers and imprecations the Moabites had great confidence, would immediately come, and curse the tribes who occasioned such uneasiness to the king and his counsellors. After some delay, arising from the command of God not to comply with the request of Balak, Balaam commenced his journey. The ass on which he rode, seeing an angel with a drawn sword in his hand, attempted three times to turn out of the way; and, upon being as often struck by her irritated master, God miraculously opened her mouth, and she expostulated with him for his ill timed severity.

Balaam, however, allured by the presents which had been promised him, prepared to pronounce maledictions against the Israelites; but, contrary to his inclination, he could only bless them, and, to the great mortification of Balak, declared that a curse should attend him, who presumed to curse that happy people. The king, therefore, commanded him to depart immediately; and Balaam returned home, after giving Balak and the Moabites most wicked counsel against Israel.

(B. C. 1343.) The Israelites having returned to idolatry, were chastised by the hand of Eglon, king of Moab, who kept them in a state of subjection during eighteen years, and imposed on them a heavy tribute. Ehud, a Benjamite, who was sent to pay this tribute, killed Eglon, and deli-

vered his nation from slavery. (B. C. 897.) During the reign of David, the Moabites were subjugated by the Israelites, whose successes or misfortunes they shared; and on the revolt of the ten tribes, they became subject to the kings of Israel. At length, they were intermingled and confounded with the great nations which ravaged those countries, where some of their descendants still remain under the general denomination of Arabs, or Arabians.

Questions on the History of Moab.

Who was the progenitor of the Moabites, and where did he fix his abode?

Whither did he flee from Sodom, and from what intercourse proceeded Moab, the father of the Moabites?

Where did the descendants of Lot settle; and what were their government, religion, and employments?

Who was Balak, the son of Zippor; and what means did he adopt to stop the progress of the Israelites?

What happened to Balaam in his way to Balak; and what was the result of his journey?

For what cause, and by whom, were the Israelites kept in subjection during eighteen years? and by whom were they delivered?

What was the state of the Moabites during the reign of David, king of Israel? With whom were they afterwards intermingled, and what is the general name of some of their descendants?

AMMON.

THIS people, who were the descendants of Ammon, the offspring of Lot and his younger daughter, after having expelled the gigantic Zamzummim, possessed themselves of the country which bordered on Moab, and which is also reckoned by some a part of Cœlo-Syria, and by others of Arabia. They were governed by kings, practised the rite of circumcision, and devoted their time principally to agriculture. Their chief deity was called Moloch, and to this idol they are said to have sacrificed their children.

(B. C. 1095.) The Ammonites were frequently engaged in war with the Israelites, with various success. Nahash, one of their kings, having reduced to the last extremity the city of Jabesh, which he besieged, the inhabitants offered to surrender, and to acknowledge him as their sovereign. Nabash answered, "I will consent to your proposal

on condition that every one of you shall lose his right eye." The inhabitants asked seven days to deliberate on this terrible proposition; but Saul, king of Israel, arriving with succours, the barbarian was defeated, and disappointed of his inhuman triumph.

On the accession of Hanun, son of Nahash, David, king of Israel, sent ambassadors to him, with an offer of continuing that amity which had subsisted between him and the late king. Hanun, persuaded by his ignorant counselors, treated the ambassadors in the most contemptuous manner, and sent them back to their master. This base and ungrateful conduct occasioned a war, which terminated in the destruction of Hanun and his kingdom.

In the time of Judas Maccabeus, the Ammonites re-appeared; but, at length, their city Jaser was burnt by the Jews, and those who escaped the sword were carried into captivity. In the beginning of the second century of the Christian æra, they were again a numerous nation; but towards the conclusion of that period, their name vanished, and they were blended with the Arabians.

Questions on the History of Ammon.

Who were the Ammonites, and of what country did they possess themselves?

What was their government, employments, and principal duty?

What was the offer of Nahash to the people of the city of Jabesh?

What was the conduct of Hanun to the ambassadors of king David, and what did it occasion?

What happened to the Ammonites in the reign of Judas Maccabeus?

Were they numerous in the beginning of the second century of the Christian æra, and when did their name vanish?

MIDIAN.

THE Midianites, who were the descendants of Midian, the fourth son of Abraham, by Keturah his wife, inhabited a tract of country in Arabia Petræa, between the lake Asphaltites, the Red Sea, and Idumea. Their situation rendered them shepherds and merchants. The former led a nomadical life, and dwelt in moveable tents. The latter also travelled from place to place in caravans, leaving the *care of their cattle* to the women. Their religion was at

first pure; but in the time of Moses, they had defiled themselves with all the abominations of the Moabites. Their form of government was rather aristocratical than monarchical, though their princes were honoured with the titles of royalty.

The incursions of the Midianites were greatly dreaded by the Israelites, and their wars were always very bloody. The two nations vied with each other in attempts at mutual extermination. When either of them obtained a victory, they massacred all the people, and reduced the towns to ashes. After undergoing several vicissitudes of fortune, the Midianites were intermingled and lost in the more celebrated nations of Arabia. Between three and four hundred years ago, however, there was a dilapidated city called Madian.*

Questions on the History of Midian.

Who were the Midianites, and what tract of country did they inhabit?

What were their occupation, religion, and government?

What was the nature of their wars?

With whom were they intermingled? and is there a place or station still called Madian?

EDOM.

THE Edomites, who were the posterity of Esau or Edom, the son of Isaac and Rebecca, inhabited a tract of territory situated between Midian, the river Jordan, and the Mediterranean sea. Their cities were built upon inaccessible rocks, and strongly fortified. They were a proud, an unsociable, and imperious people. They kept on foot numerous forces, and possessed a great number of armed chariots. They carried on a great commerce by the way of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, but principally with Tyre and Sidon. Being the descendants of Isaac, they preserved circumcision, and the worship of one God, with the exception of some idolatrous ceremonies. Their form of govern-

* This place is still one of the stations in the pilgrimage from Egypt to Mecca, under the name of Shoaib's cave.

ment was at first patriarchal, but afterwards that of an elective kingdom.

Though the Edomites were the descendants of Isaac by Esau, and the Jews descended from the same father by Jacob, these two fraternal nations were ever at enmity with each other. The antipathy which Esau constantly maintained against his brother Jacob, for defrauding him of his birth-right, is well known; and the same sentiment seems to have become hereditary among their descendants. They did not make war upon each other like other nations, but appeared to be actuated by a kind of fury, which excited them not merely to conquer, but to exterminate each other. At length, the Edomites were finally reduced by John Hyrcanus (B. C. 129.), who compelled them to embrace the Jewish religion; and their name was entirely lost in that of their conquerors.

It is necessary to observe, that Edom is designated by Pliny, Strabo, and others, by the denomination of Idumea.

Questions on the History of Edom.

Who were the Edomites, and what country did they inhabit?

Where were their cities built; and what was the character of the people?

What was their commerce; what religious rites did they observe; and what was their form of government?

Were the Israelites and the Edomites at constant enmity with each other?

By whom were the Edomites finally subjugated?

By what name is Edom designated by Pliny, Strabo, and others?

AMALEK.

THE Amalekites were descended from Amalek, the son of Esau's first-born, Eliphaz, by his concubine Timna. Their arts, sciences, and trade, were probably similar to those of their neighbours the Edomites, Egyptians, and other people. Their form of government was monarchical; and their general character was that of a haughty and imperious race. They had attained to such a height of power and magnificence, that Balaam calls them "the first of the nations;" but the God of Israel decreed, that "their name should be put out under heaven."

Perpetual wars with their neighbours, and especially with the Jews, insensibly ruined the Amalekites. Saul, at the head of a victorious army, ravaged their country (B. C. 1055.), and massacred the inhabitants without distinction. To revenge this injury, the Amalekites reduced Ziklag to ashes, and took David's two wives prisoners. David, therefore, attacked them in their retreat, and slew most of their forces. In the days of Hezekiah, they were utterly destroyed or dispersed by the Simeonites, who took possession of their country; and thus was fulfilled the prediction of Balaam: "Amalek was the first of the nations; but his latter end shall be that he perish for ever."

Questions on the History of Amalek.

From whom were the Amalekites descended?

What were their arts, sciences, trade, and form of government?

By what name are they called by Balaam?

What occasioned the ruin of the Amalekites?

Mention the battles of Saul and David with this people.

When and by whom were they utterly destroyed?

How was the prediction of Balaam fulfilled?

CANAAN.

UNDER the general denomination of Canaanites are included the seven nations distinguished in Scripture by the names of Hittites, Jebusites, Amorites, Girgashites, Hivites, Perizzites, and Canaanites properly so called. They appear to have laboured in a particular manner under the evil influence of the curse denounced against their progenitor, Canaan; being doomed in the end to subjection, expulsion, or extirpation. Those who resided on the sea-coasts were merchants, and known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Those who had an inland situation, were partly employed in rural occupations, and partly in the exercise of arms. Those who resided in the walled cities and fixed abodes, cultivated the land; and those who wandered about, grazed cattle, or carried arms. The Canaanites were, therefore, shepherds, husbandmen, soldiers, sailors, artificers, and merchants. Their religion was undefiled to the days of Abraham, who acknowledged

Melchisedek as a priest of the most high God; but in the time of Moses, they had become incorrigible idolaters, and compelled their children to pass through the fire to Moloch. They were comprehended in a great number of states under subjection to chiefs or kings; and all public business was transacted in popular assemblies.

The history of the Canaanites exhibits only a long series of wars with the Israelites, by whom they were commonly defeated; and their defeats were always accompanied with marvellous and disastrous circumstances. At length, oppressed by Israel on the one hand, and assaulted by the powerful armies of Pharaoh on the other, the remnant of the Amorites, Hittites, Hivites, Perizzites, and Jebusites, in the days of Solomon, became tributary to the Jews, who employed them in the most laborious and servile works. The Canaanites properly so called, however, were not tributary to Solomon, but remaining free in their possessions on the sea-coast, gradually rose to a great height of fame and prosperity under the appellation of Phœnicians.

Questions on the History of Canaan.

What nations are distinguished under the general denomination of Canaanites?

Did they labour under the influence of the curse denounced against their progenitor?

How were the Canaanites distinguished by their respective situations?

What were their trades, occupation, religion, and form of government?

What does the history of the Canaanites exhibit?

When did they become tributary to the Jews?

Were the Canaanites properly so called tributary to Solomon?

PHILISTINES.

This people were descended partly from the Casluhim, and partly from the Caphtorim, the posterity of Mizraim. Moses says that having expelled the Avim or Avites, even to Gaza, they took possession of the country which was the chief, if not the best, part of the Land of Promise. Their most ancient form of government was administered by kings, all of whom were denominated Abimelech. In the

days of Moses, this monarchy was changed into an aristocracy of five lords; but the supreme authority was again vested in kings, who were distinguished by the name of Achish.

The Philistines were a warlike and an industrious people, and, in the days of Abraham, remarkable for the purity and simplicity of their manners; but they gradually degenerated into all the vices of idolatrous nations, and became the most irreconcilable enemies of the Israelites. They were greatly addicted to trade; entertained a very fond veneration for their deities; and performed their religious ceremonies with much pomp and magnificence. They possessed the arts and sciences in common with the most ingenious of their contemporaries; and to them is ascribed the invention of the bow and arrow.

The Philistines appear to have been a scourge in the hand of God to chastise his own people, the Jews. As if the destinies of these two nations were continually to balance each other, after having mutually exhausted their strength, they passed together under the dominion of the Assyrians. From this period, the Philistines were tributary to the great monarchies as they succeeded each other, till their total destruction was accomplished, according to the animated prediction of the prophet Zephaniah: "Gaza shall be forsaken, and Ashkelon a desolation: they shall drive out Ashdod at the noon day, and Ekron shall be rooted up. Wo unto the inhabitants of the sea-coasts, the nation of the Cherethites! the word of the Lord is against you: O Canaan, the land of the Philistines, I will even destroy thee, that there shall be no inhabitant; and the sea-coasts shall be dwellings and cottages for shepherds, and folds for flocks."

Questions on the History of the Philistines.

From whom were the Philistines descended? what territory did they inhabit? and what was their form of government?

What was the character of the Philistines? Were they addicted to trade? What was their veneration for their deities? and what were their arts and sciences?

What do the Philistines appear to have been in the hand of God? What was their destiny with that of the Israelites? What was the prediction of the prophet Zephaniah concerning them, and how was it fulfilled?

JEWS.

THE rich and beautiful tract of country first called the Land of Canaan, was afterwards designated by the Land of Promise, the Land of God, the Holy Land,* Palestine, Judea, and the Land of Israel. It was bounded on the west by the Mediterranean sea; on the east by the Lake Asphaltites, the river Jordan, the Samochanite lake, and the sea of Tiberias; on the north by the mountains of Antilibanus, or the province of Phœnicia; and on the south by Edom or Idumea. The Jewish lawgiver was induced by the serenity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the incomparable excellence of the fruits of Palestine, to describe it as "a land that flowed with milk and honey; a land of brooks and waters, of fountains that spring out of the hills and valleys; a land of wheat and barley, of vines, pomegranates, figs, and honey; a land where is no lack or scarcity of any thing." At present, however, a great part of it is uncultivated, and reduced to a mere desert.

Subsequently to its conquest by the children of Israel, Judea, in its most extensive sense, was divided by lot among the twelve tribes. Two tribes and a half were seated beyond Jordan, and nine and a half on this side, which was styled more properly the Holy Land.

The religion of the Jews, though formerly clouded with mysterious ceremonies, and at present totally eclipsed by the radiance of the Gospel, must ever be considered as an object of veneration. Their *laws*† were admirably adapted to honour their Creator, and to render themselves completely happy; their *sacrifices* were calculated to remind them of their failings, which required a diurnal atonement, and to shadow forth the vicarious sacrifice that should, "in the fulness of time," be offered for the sins of mankind; and even their most trivial *ceremonies* were replete with instruction, or typical of the gracious designs of the Almighty.

* The Jews have dignified this country with the title of Holy Land on account of its metropolis, which was regarded as the centre of God's worship, and his peculiar habitation: and Christian writers have deemed it worthy of the same honour, as being the scene on which the co-equal Son of God accomplished the great work of redemption.

† A full, clear, and satisfactory account of the laws of the Jews is contained in Holy Writ, and may be read in the Book of Leviticus.

Their government has been justly distinguished by the name of theocracy, from its being under the immediate direction of God. Both their civil and religious customs were founded upon their laws. The laws most strictly enjoined the proscription of idolatry under all its forms; the indispensable obligation of circumcision; and the observance of the sabbath. The principal solemnities were, the passover, which was instituted in memory of their coming out of Egypt; the pentecost, or the anniversary of the law being delivered upon mount Sinai; the feast of tabernacles, which represented their wandering forty years in the wilderness; the feast of trumpets, which announced the first day of the year, and of each month, or the new moons. In the sabbatic year, and in that of the jubilee, the former of which took place every seventh year, and the latter every forty-ninth, the people were not to sow, reap, nor trade, but for the poor.

The Jews were extremely careful to cultivate the knowledge of theology among themselves, and had places of public instruction, called the schools of the prophets; but they seem to have been ignorant of the science of astronomy, even at a time when it was well known to the neighbouring nations. Their language was the Hebrew, whose genius is pure, primitive, natural, and strictly conformable to the simplicity of the Jewish patriarchs. It is highly probable that they possessed the art of writing very early. The Decalogue was written on tables of stone; but it is probable, that Moses made use of a less cumbersome material, upon which he wrote the rest of his laws.

The arts in which the Israelites excelled, were those of war, husbandry, poetry, and music. The first was natural to them, on account of the numerous enemies whom they had to vanquish previously to their possession of the Promised Land. Before the time of David, however, no mention is made of regular troops.

The Jews carried on few trades or manufactures before the reign of Solomon. With respect to commerce, they received rich stuffs, linen, gold, &c., from Tyre, in exchange for corn, balm, and other excellent commodities. They were, however, totally ignorant of navigation, and when Solomon sent some ships into foreign countries, he was obliged to have them manned with foreign sailors.

(B. C. 1921.) Abraham, the progenitor and founder of the Jewish nation, was about seventy-four years of age, at

the time of his quitting the place of his nativity with his father Terah, and of removing into Haran, where he had not been long settled before Terah died. After performing the obsequies of his father, Abraham, according to the command of God, migrated with his wife, his nephew, and his servants, into the Land of Promise, and pitched his tents in the vicinage of Sichem, where he built an altar unto the Lord. (B. C. 1920.) Here God appeared to him again, confirmed his former promise, that in his seed all the nations of the earth should be blessed, and assured him that his posterity should possess the country in which he was now a stranger. A great famine, however, obliged Abraham to remove into Egypt, where he had not long resided before Pharaoh, king of that country, who did not know that Sarah was the wife of the patriarch, became enamoured of her, and took her to court. (B. C. 1919.) The Almighty interposed on behalf of his servants, and Pharaoh voluntarily restored Abraham's wife, free from violation.

The famine having ceased, Abraham returned into Canaan, and having no children by his wife Sarah, by her persuasion, took to him her handmaid Hagar, who brought forth a son (B. C. 1911.), called Ishmael. At the time appointed, however, Sarah was delivered of the child of promise, who was circumcised on the eighth day (B. C. 1891.), and named Isaac, agreeably to the command of God. For it had been ordered, that both Abraham and his posterity should be circumcised, as an indelible sign of the covenant contracted between God and them.

A misunderstanding taking place between Sarah and Hagar, Abraham was obliged to send away the latter and her son. Ishmael became the father of the Arabs, who, agreeably to the promise made to the patriarch, never were subjugated. About twenty-five years after this event, Abraham was commanded by the Almighty to sacrifice his only and dearly beloved son Isaac. The venerable patriarch prepared to obey the command, without presuming to expostulate on the severity of these orders; but when he had bound his son, and was stretching out his hand to give the fatal blow, God countermanded his injunction, and renewed all his promises to his well-trying servant, who had not attempted to withhold his *only son* from him.

Sarah having died, Abraham became desirous of seeing Isaac married to some branch of his own family, and sent

his servant to Haran (B. C. 1857), whence he brought the beautiful Rebecca, the daughter of the patriarch's brother. Though greatly delighted with this marriage, Abraham espoused Keturah, after he had continued a widower several years. (B. C. 1853.) By her he had six sons, who settled in both Arabias, where some traces of their name still exist. Abraham died in the hundred and seventy-fifth year of his age, and was buried by his sons, Isaac and Ishmael, in the sepulchral cave of Machpelah.

(B. C. 1838.) At length, Rebecca was delivered of two sons, Esau and Jacob, of whom the former was a great hunter, and the darling of his father; but the latter was the favourite of his mother, who knew, by divine revelation, that he should inherit the blessing. Esau sold his birth-right to Jacob, who also contrived to deprive him of the blessing of Isaac, their father.* (B. C. 1761.) This conduct incurred the hatred of Esau, who obliged Jacob to seek an asylum in the house of his uncle Laban, at Padan Aram. Here he was kindly received, and married Leah and Rachel, the two daughters of Laban, for whom he served their father fourteen years. The two wives and their handmaids brought forth the twelve sons of Jacob, who became fathers of tribes, and one daughter, named Dinah. Of these, two only, Joseph and Benjamin, were the sons of Rachel.

After a lapse of many years, in which he had accumulated a fund of wealth, Jacob set out to revisit his native land; and acquainting Esau with the prosperous state of his affairs, he announced to him his return from Mesopotamia. As soon as Esau received this information, he went forth to meet his brother with so numerous a train of followers, that Jacob concluded he came for his destruction. The interview with Esau, however, was pleasingly affecting; and the two brothers were perfectly reconciled. Esau returned to his adopted country; and Jacob, as possessing the birthright of the elder, resided in the paternal inheritance. Jacob continued to reside with his father, till the good patriarch yielded his spirit into the hands of his Maker, in the hundred and eightieth year of his age. He was buried by his two sons in the cave of Machpelah, with Abraham and Sarah.

* To the birth-right of the elder was attached the possession of all the advantages promised to Abraham; and among others, that of being the head or father of a people, among whom should be born the Messiah, who should extend his kingdom over the whole earth.

(B. C. 1729.) Jacob entertained for his son Joseph a partiality, which excited the jealousy of his other children. Their envy was suddenly converted into the most irreconcilable hatred, by this darling of his father relating to them some remarkable dreams, which clearly prefigured his future exaltation, and the humiliation of his brethren. They, therefore, took an opportunity of selling him to a troop of Ishmaelites; and dipping Joseph's party-coloured coat in the blood of a kid, sent it to the good patriarch, who recognising the garment, exclaimed, in an agony of despair, "Joseph is without doubt rent in pieces." The Ishmaelites carried Joseph into Egypt, and sold him to Potiphar, an officer of the king's guard, whom he served with such diligence, zeal, and fidelity, that he was soon entrusted with the entire management of his master's affairs. In this situation, he captivated the affections of Potiphar's wife, who, unable to seduce him into a compliance with her unlawful desires, accused him to her husband of offering violence to her person. Joseph was, therefore, cast into prison, where he found the king's chief butler and chief baker, who acquainted him with some remarkable dreams, which he readily interpreted, and also predicted the precise time of their accomplishment.

About this time (B. C. 1715.), the Egyptian monarch was greatly disturbed by two remarkable dreams,* which the magicians were unable to explain, but which Joseph, on being sent for out of prison at the recommendation of the chief butler, rightly interpreted. Joseph was, therefore, honoured with Pharaoh's warmest esteem, and being seated in the second chariot of state, the men who ran before it cried, "Bow the knee." He then erected granaries, appointed proper officers in every place, and arranged matters with such excellent foresight and application, that before the expiration of the seven plentiful years, he found the stores filled above numbering. In the mean time, the king had bestowed on him, in marriage, the daughter of Potipherah, priest of On, by whom he had two sons, Manasseh and Ephraim.

The seven plentiful years, indicated by the first part of Pharaoh's dream, were succeeded by those of famine; and the scarcity was severely felt in the land of Canaan, and in the adjoining nations. Jacob, therefore, sent ten of his

* Vide Genesis chap. xli.

sons into Egypt to purchase grain, and retained only Benjamin at home. Joseph affected to consider them as impostors and spies, and required that *nine* of them should depart and carry provision for their family, while *one* remained in prison, till the arrival of their youngest brother should prove their sincerity. The patriarch was much grieved at the detention of Simeon, but utterly refused to suffer Benjamin to go down into Egypt. At length, however, the increasing pressure of famine, the entreaties of his children, and the solemn engagement of Judah to bring back Benjamin with him, induced Jacob to grant his consent. At this time Joseph revealed himself to his brethren, and embraced them with inexpressible tenderness.

Pharaoh being informed that Joseph's brethren were come, gave orders that the family should be removed into his dominions; and Joseph, in compliance with the wishes of his royal patron, sent for his father. When Jacob heard of the safety and exalted situation of Joseph, he fainted beneath the oppressive emotions of his soul; and on seeing the rich presents and the carriages, which had been sent by the command of Pharaoh, he exclaimed, "Joseph, my son, is yet alive; I will go and see him before I die." The patriarch and his sons received the royal permission to settle in the land of Goshen, where they received a constant supply from the granaries during the famine, and were entrusted with the care of the flocks and herds belonging to the king.

(B. C. 1689.) Jacob finding, by the visible decay of his bodily strength, that his dissolution was at hand, called his sons around his bed, and gave them his benediction, in which he predicted what should happen to each of the tribes of which they were to be the fathers. He also requested that his body might 'be carried into Canaan, to the sepulchre of his fathers; which Joseph promised, and performed. Accordingly, the body was embalmed with the customary ceremonies; the Egyptians devoted seventy days to respectful lamentation; and the mournful procession was attended by all the males of Jacob's family, the chief officers of the king's household, and the grandees of the kingdom. As soon as the cavalcade, consisting of a vast multitude of chariots and horsemen, had crossed the river Jordan, they halted for seven days at the threshing floor of Atad, where they performed a funeral ceremony, which induced the Canaanites to call the place Abel-Mizraim, or *the mourning of the Egyptians*. Then

resuming their march, they proceeded to Machpelah, where the sons of Israel performed his obseques, and then returned to Egypt with the rest of the company.

(B. C. 1630.) At the time of Joseph's death, he sent for his brethren, and assured them that God would certainly fulfil his immutable promise, and establish their posterity in the land of Canaan. He, therefore, requested, that they would not inter his remains in the land of Goshen, but deposit them in some secure place, and on the accomplishment of his prediction, carry them to the spot of ground which his beloved father had given him by his last will. Having expressed this wish to his brethren, and taken an oath of them for its due fulfilment, Joseph breathed out his soul in the hundred and tenth year of his age, having continued eighty years in possession of those honours, which Pharaoh conferred on his extraordinary merit.

The perscution of the Israelites commenced under the reign of a new monarch, who was either unacquainted with Joseph, or had forgotten his important services. Finding, at the expiration of several years, that neither the hardships imposed upon the Israelites (B. C. 1573.), nor the cruelties which his officers exercised towards them, could prevent their great increase, he strictly commanded the two chief Hebrew midwives to destroy every new-born male. These women, however, fearing God, and abhorring the idea of so barbarous an office, neglected the royal command. Pharaoh, therefore, issued an edict, under the severest penalties, that every male child of the Hebrews should be thrown into the Nile, as soon as it was born, and that only the females should be suffered to live.

(B. C. 1571.) It happened that Amram, the son of Kohath, and Jochebed, the daughter of Levi, had two children, Miriam and Aaron, before the promulgation of this edict; but Moses being born some time after, and proving a beautiful child, the parents felt great reluctance to destroy him. They accordingly concealed him three months; but, fearing a discovery, they enclosed him in an ark of bulrushes, and committed him to the mercy of the waves, leaving his sister Miriam at a convenient distance to watch the event. The child was taken out of the water by order of Pharaoh's daughter, who ordered Miriam to fetch a Hebrew nurse to suckle the foundling; and the happy Jochebed received again the dear infant, with an injunction to treat him as tenderly as if he were her own. The royal

deliveret called the child Moses, to express the circumstance of his having been drawn out of the water, adopted him for her son, and caused him to be instructed in all the learning of the Egyptians.

Moses, however, felt an aversion to the oppressors of his own nation (B. C. 1531.), and having killed an Egyptian, who had exercised some wanton cruelty on one of the Hebrews, he fled with precipitation into the land of Midian, where he continued forty years. Here God appeared to him, and commanded him to return to Egypt, and to demand from Pharaoh the dismissal of the Israelites. With reluctance, Moses undertook this mission, but being joined by his brother Aaron, he commenced his journey. On their arrival in the land of Goshen (B. C. 1491.), they imparted their errand to the elders of Israel, and presented themselves before the king. But the preamble, "Thus saith Jehovah, the God of Israel," sounded so strangely in the ears of Pharaoh, that he peremptorily answered, he knew not Jehovah, neither would he accede to their request; and he ordered the task-masters to double the labour of the Hebrews.

Endowed with the power of commanding nature, and of enforcing obedience, Moses again approached the presence of the king, and threw down his rod, which was instantly changed into a serpent. He stretched out the same rod over the running and standing waters, which were immediately converted into blood. He brought upon the land such a vast multitude of frogs, that even the ovens, beds and tables, of the Egyptians swarmed with them. He touched the ground with his miraculous rod, and the dust was transformed into innumerable swarms of lice. He filled the air with flies, whose bite was extremely venomous and painful. He smote the cattle of the Egyptians with a grievous murrain, and covered the Egyptians themselves with fetid and dangerous ulcers. Moses also wrought other prodigies, which were proofs of the divine vengeance; but the last and most terrible miracle consisted in smiting all the first-born, from the eldest son of the king, to the first-born of the imprisoned captive, and even to that of the meanest animal. On the night in which this act of vengeance took place, the Israelites were directed to sprinkle the door posts of their houses with the blood of the paschal lamb, that the destroying angel might recognise their dwellings, and pass them by. On this signal calamity befalling the Egyptians, Pharaoh, who had hitherto obstinate

fused to allow the Israelites to depart, pressed them to be gone; and the latter borrowed a profusion of ornaments in the general consternation.

(B. C. 1491.) Moses accordingly commenced his march towards the desert, at the head of six hundred thousand men able to bear arms, besides aged men, women, children, servants, and strangers. The Supreme Being guided their progress by a pillar of fire by night, and by a column of smoke by day. The Israelites were calmly proceeding under this ægis, when they beheld the army of the Egyptians pursuing them, and the Red Sea before them. In pursuance of the divine command, Moses stretched out his rod over the sea, and the waters divided, and the Israelites passed safely through to the opposite shore. He again stretched out his rod over the sea, and the waves, hitherto miraculously suspended, rushed suddenly into their bed, and overwhelmed the impious Pharaoh with all his forces.

The Israelites now marched towards the wilderness of Zin, where a scarcity of provisions gave rise to the most ungrateful and impious murmurings. Such, however, was the love, the mercy, and the incomprehensible goodness of their Creator, that he sent them a prodigious quantity of quails, and every morning the ground was covered with a species of bread called *manna*. Moses informed them, that this manna was the bread with which God had promised to feed them during their continuance in the wilderness, and commanded them to gather a certain quantity, for each person, every morning except the sabbath, which was to be kept holy. When they wanted water, Moses struck the rocks, which afforded them abundant supply.

By the direction of God, they came to the foot of mount Sinai (B. C. 1491.), where they were commanded to sanctify themselves, to observe attentively what passed, and to keep at a reverential distance. On the appointed day, Moses ascended the mount in the midst of a cloud, while the congregated tribes beheld the top of Sinai covered with fire and smoke, and felt its foundation shake beneath their feet. After the sound of the trumpet ceased, and the thunder died away, the voice of the Deity was distinctly heard to pronounce the ten principal commandments, which were also inscribed on tables of stone by the finger of God. When Moses descended from the mount, he perceived the apostate tribes dancing round a golden calf, which Aaron

had made at their request. Moses was violently enraged at their conduct; and in the first transports of anger, he broke the tables which contained the holy commandments; but the people repenting of their idolatrous worship, God was pleased to pardon them.

Moses having procured two new tables to supply the place of those which he had broken, demanded of the Israelites a free-will offering for the tabernacle, sacerdotal vestments, utensils, &c. (B. C. 1490.) The work was performed with such diligence and alacrity, that in less than six months, the tabernacle, with all its splendid furniture and costly apparatus, was completed, and set up at the foot of mount Sinai, where Aaron and his sons, after a solemn consecration, began to offer sacrifices upon the new altar, according to the ceremonial law.

A violent murmuring of the people at Taberah, however, occasioned the destruction of the extremities of the camp by a miraculous fire. An audacious complaint against the manna, was followed by a dreadful distemper, which swept vast numbers to an untimely grave. An insurrection, resulting from the report of the spies relative to the Promised Land, caused God to affirm, that none of the Israelites who were above twenty years of age, except Joshua and Caleb, should enter into that rich inheritance; but that they should wander about from place to place, till all their bodies should return to their native dust in the wilderness. Even Moses himself, because he had hesitated in an act which the Almighty had commanded him to perform, was only to see the Promised Land from the summit of a mountain.

(B. C. 1452.) Moses having numbered the people, was commanded to ascend mount Nebo, that he might behold the Promised Land. Accordingly, he caused Joshua to be solemnly nominated for his successor; and having assembled the people, he recapitulated all that had happened since their departure from Egypt, and enforced the observance of the divine precepts by the most engaging motives. He then ascended mount Nebo, and there died, in the hundred and twentieth year of his age; and his body was interred by the Almighty in so private a place, that no mortal could discover it.

(B. C. 1451.) Joshua having succeeded to the office of Moses, sent spies to reconnoitre the Promised Land; and these informing him that the Canaanitish nations were much alarmed at the approach of the Israelites, he led the people

against Jericho. This city was dismantled by the shouts of the Jews, by the sound of rams' horns, and by carrying the ark of the covenant round the walls, and not an inhabitant of it was spared, except the family of Rahab, who had concealed the spies. The passage of the Jordan, whose waters divided and stood on an heap, the stopping of the sun in its course, and the remarkable shower of hail-stones, which tended to overthrow the confederated army of the Canaanitish nations, greatly facilitated the conquest of the country. The Land of Promise was divided by lot among the tribes, according to their families. Joshua having assembled all the heads of the tribes at Shechem, prevailed on them to renew their covenant with the true God, in the most solemn and public manner. He died soon after, in the hundred and tenth year of his age. His remains were interred in the border of his inheritance in Timnath-Serah, on the north side of the hill Gaash.

(B. C. 1426.) A great part of the land of Canaan remaining still unconquered, by command of the Almighty the tribe of Judah, under the conduct of Caleb, the son of Jephunneh, marched against the king of Bezek; pillaged and burnt Jerusalem, then inhabited by the Jebusites; compelled the gigantic sons of Anak to seek refuge in the cities of Hebron and Kirjath-Sepher; and struck such terror into the inhabitants of Ekron, Gaza, and Askelon, that they yielded their possessions to an army, which fought under the banner and protection of Omnipotence. The other tribes, however, did not extirpate their enemies, but married some of the Canaanitish maidens, whose idolatrous practices they imitated; and this abandonment of God was the cause of the defeats which they experienced.

(B. C. 1406.) During the anarchy and confusion which succeeded this apostacy, the inhabitants of Gibeah, in the tribe of Benjamin, were guilty of a horrible breach of hospitality towards a Levite. The Israelites took up arms, and exterminated the whole tribe of Benjamin, except six hundred men; but filled with remorse at this action, they used means to restore the tribe of Benjamin, which soon attained its former strength.

The Israelites having again provoked the displeasure of God, were now deprived of the privilege of a judge, and became enslaved to the Midianites. But they were at length delivered by Gideon, who, under the auspices of Heaven, dispersed the Midianitish forces, and slew the kings Zebah

and Zalmunna. (B. C. 1236.) Gideon, at the time of his death, left the Israelites in a peaceful and flourishing condition. Abimelech, a natural son of the deceased warrior, resolving to reign alone, murdered all his brethren, the seventy sons of Gideon, excepting Jotham, who made his escape, and caused himself to be proclaimed judge in a tumultuous assembly.

The people of Israel being oppressed by the Philistines and Ammonites, Jephthah, the son of Gilead, marched against them, and vowed that if God would crown his attempts with success, he would sacrifice the first living creature that should come out of his house to meet him at his return. It happened, that the unhappy victim of this imprudent vow was his *only daughter*, who only requested a respite of two months, during which she would retire with some of her companions to the mountains, and there mourn her untimely fate.

Samson repeatedly vanquished the Philistines, by concealing on what depended the great strength which he had received; but suffering the secret to be wrested from him by his mistress Dalilah, he expiated his imprudence by a tragical death, which he rendered fatal to his enemies.

Eli was both high-priest and judge, but being an old man, his two sons, Hophni and Phineas, took advantage of his debility, and committed the grossest impieties and abominations. God, therefore, commanded young Samuel, in a vision, to assure Eli of the most awful retribution, and to upbraid him with his ingratitude. The Philistines defeated the Israelites, and took the ark, which so affected the old man, that he fell from his seat, and died.

(B. C. 1096.) Samuel acted in the double capacity of prophet and judge, and in him ended the government by judges. The elders of Israel complained to him that his sons were unworthy to succeed him, and told him that the nation required a king. Samuel expostulated with the people on the impolicy and dangerous tendency of their proceedings; but finding his eloquence exerted in vain, he, in compliance with the command of God, promised to gratify their desire. Accordingly, he anointed Saul the son of Kish, and presenting him to the people, as the man whom God had resolved to entrust with the care of Israel, caused him to be proclaimed *king*.

(B. C. 1095.) The first action of Saul, after he obtained

the regal dignity, was a complete victory over the Amalekites, which gained him the esteem of the people. In several following affairs of moment, however, he acted contrary to the advice of Samuel, and even disobeyed the positive commands of God. Samuel, therefore declared to him, that his disobedience would cause the regal dignity to be transferred to a more deserving person; (B. C. 1063.) and about thirty years after this sentence, the prophet was sent to Bethlehem to anoint David, the son of Jesse, in the room of the reigning prince.

Soon after this event, Saul was tormented by an evil spirit, or by a deep melancholy, which could be dispelled only by the melodious sounds of the harp, on which David excelled. The son of Jesse swept the tuneful strings, with such inimitable sweetness, skill, and pathos, that the monarch's disorder was soon apparently cured. (B. C. 1069.) The miraculous victory which David gained over the gigantic champion of the Philistines, gave birth to the most ardent friendship between Jonathan and him, and the Scripture says, "their souls were knit together." But Saul's admiration of that intrepid act was soon converted into jealousy; and he gave David his daughter Michal in marriage, for the purpose of engaging him in hazardous enterprises. He also endeavoured to procure the death of David by suborned assassins, and even by his own hand.

(B. C. 1059.) Samuel died, and was buried at Ramah, after having judged Israel twenty years from the decease of Eli, and living about thirty-six after the elevation of Saul to the regal dignity. Saul, finding himself deserted by a great number of his forces, and being unable to consult his Creator respecting the event of an approaching engagement with the Philistines, went in disguise to Endor, and prevailed on a woman who had a familiar spirit, to raise up the prophet Samuel. When the vision appeared, Saul apologized for adopting so unlawful an expedient. Samuel told him, that having alienated the love of God by his disobedience, he should on the morrow lose both his life and his kingdom. (B. C. 1055.) This prediction was fully verified; and together with Saul perished all his sons excepting Ishbosheth, who was proclaimed king by Abner at Mahanaim. The death of Ishbosheth, however, rendered David sovereign of the whole nation; (B. C. 1053.) and he was formally acknowledged king by all the tribes.

The reign of David, though sometimes shaded, was in very many respects brilliant, and its commencement prosperous. He triumphed over his foreign enemies, suppressed all intestine commotions, revived among the Israelites an attachment to religion, and inspired them with a taste for the arts. He treated with kindness and distinction Mephibosheth, the son of Jonathan, whom he invited to his court.

(B. C. 1035.) But during the siege of the metropolis of Hanun, king of the Ammonites, a circumstance occurred which fixed an indelible stain on the character of David, and tarnished the lustre of his former actions. Being enamoured of a beautiful woman, named Bathsheba, the wife of his valiant captain Uriah, he not only gratified his unlawful desires, but also contrived the death of the injured husband, who was employed at the siege. The Almighty, therefore, sent to him the prophet Nathan, who related to David the story of the poor man and his ewe lamb with such energy and pathos, that the king hastily pronounced sentence of death against the person who had been guilty of such horrid violence. But when the awful declaration, "Thou art the man," sounded in his ears, David was at once abashed, afflicted, and dismayed; and melting into tears, he humbly entreated pardon of his God, who granted it with expiatory punishments.

From this period, the reign of David was only a series of calamities. His kingdom was ravaged by disastrous wars, by pestilence, and by famine. His sons committed incest and murder. The nation loudly murmured and revolted. Absalom, his favourite son, rebelling against him, the king was obliged to fly from his capital, loaded with the imprecations of his people, who had before adored him. Following the advice of perfidious counsellors, who had an interest in fomenting the discord between Absalom and his father, his son caused a tent to be raised upon the terrace of the royal palace, and sending for the concubines of David, committed with them the greatest outrages in the sight of all Israel. (B. C. 1023.) A battle terminated the rebellion and the life of this ungrateful son, whose death the king lamented exceedingly, exclaiming, "O! Absalom, my son, my son, would to God I had died for thee!"

(B. C. 1015.) The declining state of David's health induced Adonijah, the next in birth to Absalom, to make preparations for his accession to the throne. The king,

however, being reminded of his promise in favour of the son of Bathsheba, and understanding the design of Adonijah, caused Solomon to be proclaimed his successor by sound of trumpet. David expired in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and in the fortieth of his reign. He left an immense treasure, exclusive of that designed for the use of the temple, and was interred in a magnificent tomb at Jerusalem.

The Almighty having offered in a dream to grant to the young king whatever he should think proper to ask, Solomon earnestly requested, that such a degree of wisdom might be given, as might enable him to govern the children of Israel with suitable prudence and sagacity. In consequence of this modest request, he was endowed with a greater share of wisdom than had ever been possessed by any mortal, together with a promise of every earthly blessing, which he had judiciously overlooked. The exquisite discernment of this monarch was soon exhibited to advantage, in the sentence which he pronounced relative to the infant, that was claimed by two women; and his excellent judgment appeared in the choice of his counsellors and officers, in the institution of his laws, the economy of his household, the strength of his army, and the multitude of his subjects.

(B. C. 1013.) Having contracted with Hiram, king of Tyre, for a large quantity of timber, and for a sufficient number of workmen, Solomon laid the foundation of the Jewish temple in the fourth year of his reign; and in seven years, this stupendous and magnificent edifice was completed. (B. C. 1005.) It was dedicated with all imaginable pomp: the ark of the covenant was deposited in the most holy place between the cherubim; the air resounded with vocal and instrumental music; and the sacred cloud, which had formerly overshadowed the tabernacle, visibly descended on the priests, while they prepared the victims for sacrifice.

Notwithstanding the deserved reputation of Solomon for wisdom, he became such a slave, in his old age, to his passions, that he married a surprising multitude of women, without distinction of country, faith, or family; and permitting himself to be seduced by them into gross and abominable idolatries, he was assured in a dream, that, as the result of his ingratitude, his successors should mourn the loss of the kingdom, except the tribe of Judah,

which would be left them in consideration of the sacred promise given to David. Solomon died in the fortieth year of his reign, and about the fifty-eighth of his age, and was buried in the sepulchre of his royal father.

(B. C. 975.) Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon, went to Shechem to receive the homage of the Israelites; but they refused to acknowledge his sovereignty, unless he would redress some popular grievances. The king, however, answered in a haughty tone, that he intended to rule them with greater severity than his father ever exercised, and that he would chastise the slightest murmur with scorpions instead of whips. This harsh reply occasioned an immediate revolt of ten of the tribes, which chose Jeroboam, an enterprising youth of the tribe of Ephraim, to be their sovereign. Judah and Benjamin, however, remained under the government of Rehoboam, whom they conducted to Jerusalem.

Jeroboam, being apprehensive that the custom of going thrice in the year to Jerusalem might, in time, reconcile his new subjects to the house of David, sacrificed religion to his security, and set up two golden calves at Dan and Bethel, whither he ordered the people to repair with their offerings, instead of going to the temple. He also built some idolatrous edifices, and selected priests for his imaginary deities from the lowest class of the people.

In the mean time, multitudes of persons, who abhorred the infamous practices of Jeroboam, flocked to the metropolis of Rehoboam, and renewed their former allegiance. But this latter prince suffering idolatry to be established in his kingdom, God punished him by an invasion of the Egyptians (B. C. 972.), who reduced Jerusalem, and pillaged the temple and palaces of their most costly ornaments.

(B. C. 958.) Abijah, the successor of Rehoboam, no sooner ascended the throne, than he attacked and defeated the king of Israel, who lost three hundred thousand men, and who could not recover his strength for three years. Abijah was succeeded by Asa, (B. C. 955.) a pious monarch, who applied himself zealously to the work of reformation. He was attacked by a numerous army of Cushites (B. C. 941.) under the command of Zera, an Ethiopian, whom he routed in a pitched battle. Asa died in the forty-first year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Jehoshaphat.

The race of Jeroboam fell victims to various conspiracies (B. C. 918.). Ahab, the son of Omri, ascended the

throne of Israel, in the thirty-eighth year of Asa's reign. He married Jezebel, a princess of Zidon; and this marriage proved a constant source of wicked and idolatrous actions. It happened that the vineyard of Naboth, an Israelite who feared God, was so situated as to interfere with some plans formed by the king, who wished to purchase it. But Naboth refusing to sell the inheritance of his fathers, and Ahab being chagrined at this refusal, Jezebel suborned false witnesses against Naboth, who was condemned and stoned, and his vineyard confiscated to the use of the king. God, therefore, commanded the prophet Elijah to declare to Ahab, that dogs should lick his blood, and devour the limbs of the cruel Jezebel; and this prophecy was accordingly fulfilled.

At the time that Ahab reigned over Israel, the throne of Judah was occupied by the pious king Jehoshaphat, who triumphed over a league formed against him, and found in his success the reward of his virtues.

(B. C. 896.) Ahaziah succeeded to the throne of his father Ahab, but happening to hurt himself by a fall, he sent to Baalzebub, the idol of Ekron, requesting to be informed respecting his recovery. Upon which, the prophet Elijah assured him, that, because he had consulted the deity of Ekron in contempt of the true God, he should never leave his bed till he was carried to his grave; and this prediction was soon accomplished by the death of Ahaziah.

(B. C. 889.) He was succeeded by his brother Jehoram. In his reign, Benhadad, the Syrian general, advanced with a numerous host against Samaria, which he reduced to such extremities, that the head of an ass was sold for eighty pieces of silver, and the women were under the necessity of eating their own children. At length, the Almighty caused a sudden alarm in the enemy's camp, and the Syrians fled with such precipitation, that they left their tents, provisions, horses and riches, for a spoil to the Israelites, whose wants were then so abundantly supplied, that a measure of fine flour was sold for one shekel, and every other article in proportion, at the gate of Samaria.

Jehu slew at one time seventy sons of Ahab, and forty-two princes of the house of Judah. He also put to death all the worshippers of Baal, demolished his temple, and buried all the idols and ornaments. This conduct was so *pleasing to God*, that he sent (B. C. 856.), to assure the

new monarch, that his posterity should enjoy the kingdom of Israel to the fourth generation. Jehu, however, imprudently followed the abominations of Jeroboam; and his reign was, therefore, embittered by several melancholy accidents; and he died in the twenty-eighth year after his accession to the throne, and was buried in Samaria.

Whilst Jehu was zealous in behalf of the Jewish religion, Athaliah, the daughter of Jezebel, endeavoured to banish the worship of God from Judea. She also wreaked her vengeance on the remains of the house of Judah; but an infant, named Joash, escaped her researches, and was at length raised to the throne. This prince apostatizing from the worship of the true God, the king of Syria committed some dreadful outrages in Judea, and Joash was afterwards assassinated in his bed by his own servants.

(B. C. 838.) He was succeeded by his son Amaziah who caused the murderers of his father to be punished, but whose subsequent idolatries entailed on him disgrace, captivity, and death. His body was carried from Lachish, where he was assassinated, to Jerusalem for interment; and the crown devolved on his son Azariah.

(B. C. 825.) During the last year of this reign, Jeroboam II. seemed to be appointed by God to restore the kingdom of Israel to its original grandeur. He reigned forty years. (B. C. 772.) To him succeeded his son Zechariah, who was the great grandson of Jehu. From this period may be dated the downfall of the kingdom of Israel, whose subsequent history is replete with treasons, murders, anarchy, and desolation.

The wisdom and mild government of Azariah raised Judah to the summit of affluence and prosperity. This prince, however, forfeited all his honours by attempting to invade the sacerdotal office, for which God smote him with a leprosy, of which he died. He was succeeded by his son Jotham, who triumphed over his enemies, beautified the temple, fortified his metropolis, and, at last, died in the possession of his people's warm affection. During this period, the kingdom of Israel languished under the successive tyrannical reigns of Menahem, Pekahiah, and Pekah.

Ahaz was no sooner seated on the throne of Judah, than his impieties provoked the Almighty to punish him with an invasion by the combined forces of Israel and Syria.

The Israelitish monarch had slaughtered one hundred and twenty thousand of the subjects of Ahaz, and taken two hundred thousand captives, when he was met by the prophet Obed, who prevailed on him to dismiss the prisoners with some tokens of humanity. The whole reign of Ahaz was one continued scene of misfortune and desolation.

When Hezekiah ascended the throne (B. C. 726), he perceived the source of Judah's calamities, and repaired to the temple, at the head of his nobles, to make suitable offerings for the sins of the nation. He then invited all the people to present themselves before God at the ensuing passover; and he pathetically represented to the idolatrous Israelites the benefits which would result from such a conduct. Immediately, the populace demolished every idolatrous monument, and thoroughly purged Jerusalem before the appointed festival.

(B. C. 721.) Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, compelled Israel to submit to his victorious arms; and having levelled Samaria with the ground, he carried into captivity Hoshea, the last king of Israel, with a great number of his subjects, who had escaped the first fury of the victors*. Such was the awful destruction of the Israelitish kingdom, after it had existed two hundred and fifty-four years independent of Judah.

Hezekiah endeavoured to prevent the invasion of Judah (B. C. 713), by sending a profusion of costly presents to Sennacherib, who had succeeded Shalmaneser, and to whom he also promised an annual tribute. Sennacherib, however, sent an army against Jerusalem, under the command of Rabсарis, Tartan, and Rabshakeh. To add to the melancholy state of Hezekiah, who was at that time sick, the prophet Isaiah, by the command of God, exhorted him to prepare for the approach of death. At the intercession of Hezekiah, however, the Almighty promised that he would restore him to health, and that all the efforts of Sennacherib against him should be defeated. In confirmation of these gracious promises, the sun's shadow went backwards ten degrees on the dial of Ahaz. The destroying angel cut off in one night one hundred and

* Many of the captives escaped into the kingdom of Judah, where they renounced their idolatrous practices, and became the subjects of Hezekiah, others fled for succour into Egypt, and a third division was sent by the Assyrians from Cuthah, to repopulate the land of Israel, and were called Cutheans,

eighty-five thousand Assyrians; and Sennacherib hastened back to his own capital.—Hezekiah, though pious, was too susceptible of vanity.

(B. C. 698.) He was succeeded by his son Manasseh, from whose unfortunate accession may be dated the downfall of the kingdom and religion. His diabolical actions, and horrid sacrilege, exceeded every thing of which his most profligate predecessors had been guilty; but being taken captive by the king of Assyria, and carried to Babylon, where he was imprisoned, he became the most humble penitent, and, after his restoration to the throne, one of the best of monarchs. He was succeeded by his son Amon (B. C. 643), who copied his example only in his wickedness, and perished miserably.

(B. C. 633.) Josiah assumed the reins of government at the age of eight years, and, during a long life, continued to display the good qualities which he early discovered. He caused the graven images, altars, and other objects of superstition to be burnt to ashes, or thrown into the river Kidron, and destroyed the golden calf which Jeroboam, the first king of Israel, had set up. He repaired the temple at Jerusalem, commanded the passover to be celebrated with the utmost solemnity, and strictly charged the magistrates, priests, and Levites, to enforce obedience to the divine laws, by example as well as by precept. He fell in an engagement with the Egyptians, who demanded a passage through Judea to attack the Assyrians. With this good and pious king, expired the religion, the happiness, and the glory of the nation.

Jehoahaz, the youngest son of Josiah, was carried a prisoner into Egypt by Pharaoh-Necho, who transferred the sceptre to his eldest brother Jehoiakim, on condition of receiving an annual tribute. This latter prince, however, was a monster of impiety and cruelty; his palaces were founded on murder, and embellished by rapine. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Assyria, subjugated the whole country, pillaged the temple, carried the king captive to Babylon, and afterwards restored to him the crown on condition of a tribute. After paying this tribute for three years, he revolted, and was slain.

(B. C. 599.) He was succeeded by his son Jehoiachin, whose actions were so displeasing to the Almighty, that Nebuchadnezzar was permitted to send him and his whole court captive to Babylon. The king of Assyria str

the temple, palace, and treasury, and set Zedekiah upon the throne, on condition of his paying a certain tribute, and taking an oath of fealty.

Zedekiah, however, endeavouring to shake off the Babylonish yoke, Nebuchadnezzar besieged Jerusalem, which, after holding out for two years and a half against the most strenuous exertions of the enemy, and the sad effects of a grievous famine, was at length entered by the Chaldeans (B. C. 588), on the 11th of the fourth month, answering to our 27th of July, in the year of the world 3416. The city was immediately pillaged of all its treasure; the sumptuous edifice, erected to the God of Israel, was reduced to ashes; the fortifications were utterly demolished; the greater part of the buildings levelled with the ground; and the unhappy Jews were led in triumph to Babylon, except some few of the lower order, who were left to cultivate the land. The prophet Jeremiah, however, procured his liberty, and was permitted to reside with Gedaliah, whom Nebuchadnezzar had placed as governor over the miserable remnant of Judah. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the Jewish monarchy, after it had stood three hundred and eighty-eight years from the revolt of the ten tribes, and one hundred and thirty-four from the excision of the Israelitish commonwealth.

(B. C. 536.) According to the prediction of Jeremiah, the Jews remained in captivity seventy years, after which, Cyrus permitted them to return to their native land*, and to rebuild the sacred temple. The number of those who returned, under the conduct of Zerubbabel and Joshua the high-priest, was forty-two thousand three hundred and sixty, besides seven thousand three hundred and thirty-seven servants of both sexes, and two hundred men and women singers. In the second month of the following year (B. C. 534.), the foundation of the temple was laid with great solemnity. The Samaritans, however, whom the king of Assyria had sent from Cuthah to repeople the country from which he had carried the ten tribes of Israel, succeeded in causing the work to be suspended by authority for several years. But in the reign of Darius the temple was allowed to be rebuilt, and being finished (B. C. 518), in three years, was dedicated with great joy and solemnity. On this occasion, great numbers of

* From this period, the men of Israel and Judah were blended together under the name of Jews.

sacrifices were offered in token of gratitude and adoration to him who had delivered his people from captivity, and brought them again to his holy mountain.

In the reign of Artaxerxes, the husband of Esther, the Jews received a beneficial visit from Ezra, a learned and zealous man of the house of Aaron, who obtained an ample commission to return to his native country with as many of his nation as were desirous of accompanying him. On his arrival at Jerusalem, he delivered some offerings from the Persian monarch and nobles to the priests. He then appointed judges and magistrates, who might take cognizance of all offences, and inflict such punishments as were agreeable to the law of Moses; collected and set forth a correct edition of the sacred books; and restored the worship of the temple to its ancient form before the captivity, and revised the Jewish liturgy.

Ezra was succeeded by Nehemiah, who, having received a similar commission from the king of Persia, restored the walls of Jerusalem, and beautified the city, which resumed some appearance of its ancient lustre. He corrected several abuses which had crept into the church and commonwealth, restored the public worship of God which had been intermitted, and enforced frequent expositions of the Holy Scriptures. After the decease of Nehemiah, the government was entirely changed, and Judea was joined to the prefecture of Syria, from which the high-priests received their authority.

(B. C. 373.) Judea being annexed to the prefecture of Syria, the governors intrusted the administration of the Jewish affairs to the high-priests, who aspired to the pontifical dignity chiefly through motives of avarice and ambition, and to whom must be ascribed the greatest part of the misfortunes that ensued.

About the thirty-fourth year of Artaxerxes Mnemon, Johanan being invested with the high-priesthood, received a visit from his brother Jeshua, who asserted that Bagoses, the governor of Syria, had promised to transfer the sacred dignity to him. A dispute immediately ensued, and Jeshua was unfortunately slain in the interior court of the temple. Johanan was succeeded by his son Jaddua, during whose pontifical office, the Jews, refusing to supply the army of Alexander the Great, drew upon them the resentment of that prince; but the impending danger was averted by the submissive conduct of the priests; and Alexander, on entering Jeru-

salem, commanded a profusion of sacrifices to be offered to the God of Israel.

Upon the division of the Macedonian empire, Palestine became subject to various revolutions, and to the several wars which the captains of Alexander waged against each other. It was invaded by Ptolemy, who took the capital on a sabbath day, and carried nearly one hundred thousand prisoners into Egypt (B. C. 320), where their good conduct induced him to trust them with the care of several considerable garrisons, and to grant them many privileges.

(B. C. 312.) The Egyptian monarch was soon compelled to resign the possession of Judea to Antigonus, who in his turn was vanquished by Ptolemy Soter. Soon after the recovery of this country by Ptolemy Soter, died Simon, the Jewish high-priest (B. C. 292), whose sanctity of manners, and integrity of conduct acquired him the surname of "the Just," and on whose decease the high-priesthood was assumed by his brother Eleazer. On the accession of Ptolemy Philadelphus to the throne of Egypt (B. C. 284), he confirmed those franchises which his father had granted to the Jews, whose friendship he endeavoured to cultivate. (B. C. 243.) At the death of Eleazer, the high-priesthood was assumed by Manasses, who left it to Onias, the son of Simon the Just.

Ptolemy Philopater having succeeded to the throne of Egypt, Antiochus endeavoured to wrest Judea from him; but the Egyptian monarch led his forces against the invader, and compelled him to desist from his intention. Ptolemy, struck with the august majesty of the Jewish ceremonies, conceived an unconquerable desire of penetrating into the interior parts of the temple. By this, he incurred the indignation of the Almighty, who smote him with such a terror of mind, that his attendants carried him out half dead.

(B. C. 204.) On the death of Philopater, the Jews submitted to Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, and afterwards to his son Seleucus. Simon was succeeded in the priesthood by Onias III. a man of great piety, clemency, and prudence. Judea flourished in peace and plenty; the Mosaic laws were duly venerated, and the generality of the people enjoyed the incomparable blessing of content.

An unfortunate breach, however, happened between Onias, and Simon governor of the temple, the latter of whom informed Seleucus, that the sacred edifice at Jeru-

salem contained immense treasures. In consequence of this information, that prince sent Heliodorus to fetch the valuables from the high-priest. (B. C. 176.) The remonstrances of Onias were ineffectual, and the Syrians broke down the gates, and entered the temple; but, at this critical moment, God defended his habitation from defilement, and smote the presumptuous strangers with such a panic, that they fell down half dead.

(B. C. 172.) The high-priesthood was sold by the governors of Syria to the highest bidder; and it was seen even in the hands of a man who was not a Jew. The Jews having made some rejoicings at the report of Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria, being dead, that prince took Jerusalem, and in three days put to death forty thousand persons, and sold as many for slaves. (B. C. 170.) Not content with this dreadful vengeance, he entered the most holy recesses of the temple, defiled the sacred vessels with his impious hands, and caused every valuable article to be seized for his own use.

(B. C. 168.) The inhuman tyrant renewed his cruelties, and sent his general Apollonius, who entered Jerusalem on the sabbath-day, murdered all who fell in his way, and deluged even the temples and synagogues with the blood of the congregations. Every part of the city was then pillaged; and the most stately fabrics were razed to the ground. Opposite to the temple, the Syrians built a fortress, which commanded that edifice.

Antiochus issued a decree, which abolished the Jewish religion under the severest penalties, and enjoined the worship of the heathenish deities. Atheneas, a person well skilled in the rites of heathenism, dedicated the temple of God to Jupiter Olympus; and, causing the statue of that idol to be erected on the altar of burnt-offerings, he compelled the miserable Jews to offer their adorations before it, or to endure the most exquisite torments. Altars, groves, and images, were also set up in other towns of Judea, the inhabitants of which were reduced to the same pitiable extremities. Great were the sufferings of the Jews, who defied the edict and the punishments of Antiochus. One of the principal victims of cruelty was the venerable Eleazer, who, having refused to eat swine's flesh, submitted to death with firmness and resignation. Seven brethren were then successively doomed to the most exquisite tortures, while

they were encouraged by their pious mother, who was last of all sacrificed, and who died with unshaken fortitude.

At length, the offended Deity vouchsafed to espouse the cause of his wretched people. (B. C. 167.) Mattathias, an eminent priest of the family of Joab, and his five sons, having collected a considerable number of adherents, the enemy was struck with terror and amazement; and the newly raised army overturned the heathenish altars, and restored the divine worship to its original purity.

(B. C. 166.) Judas Maccabeus, the eldest son of Mattathias, succeeded his father in the command of the army, and chased the Syrians from the most advantageous posts. After obtaining three successive victories, Judas entered Jerusalem (B. C. 165), which he caused to be purified; and having commissioned the priests to cleanse the temple, he ordered the most holy place to be repaired, and divine worship to recommence with all possible solemnity. Judas still continuing victorious against the Syrians, Antiochus was obliged to conclude a peace with the Jews (B. C. 163), and sent to the Jewish senate letters expressive of his amicable intentions. This peace, however, was by no means consonant with the inclinations of the Syrian generals, who embraced the first opportunity of attacking the Jews, and engaged the Arabian Nomades and other neighbouring nations, to espouse their ill-grounded and unjustifiable revenge.

Judas, however, still remaining conqueror, he resolved to besiege the fortress of Acra, which the Syrians possessed, and which prevented many persons from resorting to the temple. This being known at the court of Syria, Antiochus Eupator collected an immense army, which he commanded in person, and having taken Bethsura, he marched to Jerusalem, and laid close siege to the temple. But being compelled to raise the siege, he concluded a peace, and entering the city, caused the fortifications to be demolished, in open violation of the treaty which he had just confirmed with the most solemn oaths. Demetrius, the successor of Antiochus Eupator, in the throne of Syria, appointed Bacchides, who was governor of Mesopotamia, commandant of the city, and bestowed the high-priesthood on Alcimus, whose vices rendered him contemptible.

Bacchides and Alcimus concerted means for destroying Judas; but the Jewish chief, aware of their treacherous *intention*, eluded their design. Alcimus, therefore, finding

his forces not sufficiently strong to contend with those of Judas, repaired to the Syrian court with fresh accusations and complaints, and procured the assistance of a numerous army, which was commanded by Nicanor. This general thought proper to use stratagem in preference to force, and requested an interview with Judas, who easily discovered his perfidious intentions, and betook himself to flight. This wise precaution so highly incensed Nicanor, that he uttered imprecations against the whole nation, and even blasphemed God himself. Nicanor commenced his march towards the land of Samaria, in order to attack Judas, who had retired thither with three thousand men. The Jews, however, fell upon the Syrians with irresistible fury, and having killed the general, left not a single man alive to carry the news to Antioch.

During the peaceful interval which succeeded this victory, Judas resolved to procure an alliance with the Romans; who readily accepted the proposal, and a decree was engraven on copper, importing that the Jews were acknowledged as friends and allies of Rome, and that both nations should cheerfully aid and succour each other upon all occasions. But whilst this alliance was forming at Rome, Demetrius sent the flower of his army under the command of Bacchides and Alcimus, who attacked Judas in the neighbourhood of Eleasa. The Jewish chief being basely deserted by a great number of his ungrateful countrymen, fell, covered with wounds, on a heap of his enemies!

Judas was succeeded in the command of the army by his brother Jonathan, who found himself in more favourable circumstances, which he knew how to turn to his advantage. Bacchides being informed that Jonathan had collected a great force in the desert, marched against him, and defeated him. (B. C. 160.) He then fortified and garrisoned all such places as might keep the Jews in awe, and shut up the children of the principal inhabitants as hostages in the fortress of Acra. But the fury of Jonathan's enemies added to the number of his partisans; and trying once more the fate of arms, he was victorious. The Jewish general immediately offered to Bacchides some acceptable overtures of peace. Jonathan became deputy-governor of Judea; and his government was nearly similar to that of the Israelitish judges.

(B. C. 153.) Whilst the Jews began to revive under the administration of their pious general, the troubles in Syria

gave them an opportunity of wholly recovering their liberty. Demetrius, who had so repeatedly been convinced of their constancy and heroism, dreading that they would espouse the cause of his competitor, Alexander Balas, sent to Jonathan a letter, in which he declared him his friend and ally, and empowered him to levy forces, and to liberate the hostages in the fortress of Acra. Alexander, in order to outbid Demetrius, conferred on Jonathan the office of high-priesthood, and sent him some magnificent presents. (B. C. 150.) When Alexander ascended the throne of Syria, he entertained the warmest sentiments of gratitude towards the Jewish general, whom he created pontiff and generalissimo. About this time also, Ptolemy Philometer entrusted many of the Jews with the most important offices in his kingdom.

(B. C. 148.) A revolt of the Syrians, in favour of young Demetrius, induced Apollonius, governor of Cœle-Syria and Palestine, to assemble a powerful army against Jonathan. The latter, however, defeated the troops of Apollonius; and in return for this gallant exploit, Alexander sent him a rich present, with the grant of the territory of Ekron. Jonathan, who had governed the Jewish state with equal prudence and success nearly seventeen years (B. C. 144), was prevailed on by the perfidious Tryphon to disband his numerous army, and to enter the city of Ptolemais, where he was inhumanly murdered. In this emergency, the Jews promoted Simon, the only surviving son of Mattathias, to the high-priesthood, and conferred on him the command of their troops.

Demetrius constituted Simon a sovereign prince of the Jewish nation, and released the land entirely from foreign dominion. The sanhedrim also confirmed to him the title of prince and high-priest of the Jews. The fortress of Acra surrendered, and was demolished. Antiochus being invited to invade Syria, confirmed to the Jewish pontiff all his dignities, revenue, and authority, and allowed him to coin money for the use of the Jews. (B. C. 140.) That prince, however, had no sooner established himself in the regal dignity than he insisted that Simon should surrender to the Syrians several important places in Palestine, which the Jewish pontiff refused to give up. In consequence of this refusal, Antiochus sent Cendebeus with a numerous army into Palestine. (B. C. 139.) Simon, who was grown *old*, committed to his sons, John and Judas, the impor-

tant charge of leading the Jewish troops against the enemy. The Syrians were finally routed with a great slaughter; and the valiant brothers returned victorious to Jerusalem.

About three years after this exploit, Ptolemy, the son-in-law to the high-priest, invited Simon, with his two sons, Judas and Matthias, to a sumptuous entertainment, and caused them to be assassinated. John, surnamed Hyrcanus, was also invited, but happily escaped the snare. Hyrcanus advanced with all possible haste towards Jerusalem, where the murderer arrived as soon as he, and demanded admittance at the same time. The citizens, however, readily admitted Hyrcanus, and invested him with his father's dignities.

The Syrians being informed of the death of Simon, entered Judea with a powerful army, and laying close siege to Jerusalem, reduced it to a dreadful state by famine. Antiochus consented to grant the Jews a peace, on condition that their arms should be delivered up, their city wall demolished, and a certain tribute paid for the towns which they held out of Judea. On the death of Antiochus, Hyrcanus effected a complete deliverance for his nation from the oppression of Syria, to which the Jews from this time never paid any homage. (B. C. 130.) He even subjected several cities in Arabia and Phœnicia; and turning his victorious arms against the Samaritans, he took from them Shechem and Gerizim, and destroyed the temple built by Sanballat, and all the idolatrous altars and monuments that had been erected in the time of Jezebel. Under his government, religion was re-established in its ancient purity. With respect to the sacred ceremonies, he gave an example of unremitting assiduity. He enriched the temple, and strengthened it with fortifications. He carefully cultivated an alliance with the Romans, and left his states in a flourishing condition.

(B. C. 107.) On his death, his son Aristobulus succeeded to his father's dignities. This pontiff put to death his brother Antigonus, and his mother, who claimed a right to the sovereignty, and assumed the royal diadem, which had not been worn by any of his predecessors. He died after a short and infamous reign, and left three brothers, by one of whom, named Alexander, he was succeeded. This prince led his troops across the Jordan, against some of the neighbouring sovereigns, and though he was at first

successful, he afterwards suffered a terrible defeat. (B.C. 98.) This unfortunate event occasioned the Pharisees, his implacable enemies, to vilify his government; but Alexander pursuing his warlike designs, took Gaza, the inhabitants of which he abandoned to the fury of his troops, and reduced the city to a heap of ruins. After his return from this expedition (B. C. 95), he was treated in the most contemptuous manner by the citizens of Jerusalem, who, exasperated by the Pharisees, pelted him whilst he was officiating at the great altar on the feast of tabernacles. This riotous assembly, however, was soon dispersed by the soldiers. Alexander effectually crushed two rebellions, which had been excited by the Pharisees; and by his victories, he became an object of terror to surrounding nations. His unremitting debaucheries, however, hastened his death; and he bequeathed the government of the state to his wife Alexandra, and after her decease, to either of her sons she might think fit.

(B. C. 78.) Hyrcanus, the eldest son, was deemed a proper successor to his father in the pontificate, because he was less likely to interfere with the regal authority than his younger brother Aristobulus, who was of a more enterprising disposition. The queen, however, was equally alarmed and vexed by the untractable Pharisees, who grew insolent upon her submissions, and compelled her to grant the most exorbitant demands. Alexandra being ill of a dangerous sickness, the younger brother made an effort for the succession (B. C. 70); and though the queen appointed Hyrcanus her successor, she was no sooner dead, than Aristobulus assumed the royal title and state, and, notwithstanding the endeavours of the Pharisees (B.C. 69), obliged Hyrcanus to resign his dignities, and to live in a private manner.

Antipater, an Idumean proselyte, who had been raised to the government of his native country, joined the discontented Pharisees, and procured the assistance of Aretas, king of Arabia, who defeated the troops of Aristobulus, and proceeding to Jerusalem, compelled that prince to take shelter in the precinct of the temple. In this emergency, Aristobulus applied for succour to the Romans, who obliged Aretas to withdraw his troops from Judea (B.C. 65.); and Pompey, who was then at Damascus, ordered Hyrcanus and Aristobulus to appear in person, and plead their cause *before him*. They obeyed the summons; and the Roman

general having duly considered the pretensions of each party, dismissed them with an assurance that he would visit Judea, and there determine the controversy.

This declaration was so unsatisfactory to the younger brother, that he departed in disgust to Judea, whither Pompey followed him at the head of his troops. Aristobulus was obliged to deliver all his fortresses into the hands of the Romans; and upon the Jews refusing to pay a stipulated sum of money, the forces of Pompey marched against Jerusalem, and were admitted into the city by the faction of Hyrcanus. The party of Aristobulus were besieged in the temple, which was taken by assault; and on this occasion, twelve thousand persons perished by the arms of the Romans, besides many others who died by their own hands. The priests, however, continued to offer their usual sacrifices and devotions, and quietly suffered themselves to be massacred at the altar. Hyrcanus was restored to the pontificate, but deprived of the royal diadem, and made tributary to the Romans; and Pompey having thus subdued the Jewish nation, and gratified his curiosity by penetrating into the most secret recesses of the temple, returned to Rome with Aristobulus and his four children, as captives to adorn his triumph.

(B. C. 57.) Hyrcanus relapsed into his former indolence, and left the care of his affairs to Antipater Alexander, son of Aristobulus, having escaped from Rome, raised a powerful army in Judea, but was defeated by the Romans. Gabinius, the Roman general, divided the province into five districts, and established in each a separate court of judicature; and the Jews, who had been hitherto governed by their own monarchical pontiffs, fell under the subjection of a race of tyrants. Julius Cæsar having become master of Rome, sent Aristobulus into Palestine against Antipater (B. C. 49); but some of Pompey's partisans contrived to poison him. His son Alexander was siezed, and brought before the tribunal of Metellus Scipio at Antioch, where he was immediately doomed to suffer decapitation.

Antipater assisted Cæsar in the conquest of Egypt, for which he was presented with the freedom of Rome, and made procurator of Judea. Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus, represented to the dictator the misfortunes which his family had suffered, and petitioned for the restoration of his father's principality; but Antipater defended hi

own cause and that of Hyrcanus with such forcible eloquence, that Antigonus was repulsed as a factious and turbulent person.

Judea being divided into districts, Antipater bestowed the government of Jerusalem on his eldest son Phasael, and made Herod, his second son, governor of Galilee. The latter, however, having extirpated a dangerous banditti, the people considered this act as highly culpable, and prelude of future tyranny. Herod was, therefore, summoned before Hyrcanus and the sanhedrim; and on his appearing clothed in purple and attended by a numerous retinue, he was arraigned by Sameas for his former crime as well as for his present audacity, in attempting to intimidate his judges, instead of exculpating himself from the charges preferred against him. Hyrcanus perceiving the impression which this speech made on the court, adjourned it till the next day; and Herod retired to Damascus, whence he sent to the sanhedrim a message of contempt and defiance.

(B. C. 44.) Two years after this, a party was formed against Antipater and his family, at the head of which was one Malichus, who had gained the confidence of Hyrcanus, the high-priest, and who caused Antipater to be poisoned, and seized on the government of Judea. Malichus, however, was soon after assassinated by the order of Herod. On the arrival of Marc Antony in Bithynia, the Jews sent several embassies to prefer complaints against Phasael and Herod, as having engrossed the whole administration of Judea, and left Hyrcanus only the empty name of a prince; but Antony, who soon became fully confirmed in the interest of Herod, refused to listen to these complaints, and created the two brothers tetrarchs.

(B. C. 40.) Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus, unable to obtain redress from the Romans, persuaded a great number of discontented Jews, to enlist under his banner, and engaged Pacorus, general of the Parthians, to assist him in conquering Judea, and in deposing Hyrcanus. After some severe engagements, Phasael and Hyrcanus, relying on the pretended friendship of the general of the Parthians, were thrown into close confinement. The ears of the high-priest were cut off; and Phasael, in the extremity of despair, committed suicide.

Herod contrived to make his escape; and having placed *his family and treasures* in the fortress of Massada, he

sought the assistance of Malchus, king of Arabia. But Malchus ordering him to quit his territories, Herod was compelled to apply to the Romans, who appointed him to fill the Jewish throne, and declared Antigonus an enemy to Rome. He then returned into Judea with powerful assistance, released his family, who were reduced in Massada to the utmost extremity, and in his turn besieged Antigonus in Jerusalem. The success of the siege was retarded by various obstacles; and he found himself obliged to put his forces into winter quarters.

Early in the spring, Herod solemnized his marriage with Mariamne, who was the daughter of Alexandra, the sister of Hyrcanus, and who was highly worthy of his tenderest care and attention. He then resumed the siege of Jerusalem, which, after defying the united efforts of Herod and the Roman general for six months, was taken by assault (B. C. 37); and with its reduction terminated the reign of the Asmoneans, who had held the reins of government one hundred and twenty-nine years. Antigonus was conducted to Rome in chains, and afterwards condemned to death at the earnest solicitations of Herod.

Herod had scarcely assumed the insignia of his new dignity, when, in order to replenish his treasury, which his auxiliaries had exhausted, he caused all the gold, silver, and other valuables, found in the metropolis, to be seized and deposited in his own palace. Being greatly disturbed by domestic contentions, he was compelled, though much against his inclination, to invest Aristobulus, the brother of Mariamne, with the pontifical dignity. At the ensuing feast of tabernacles, the new high-priest, who was only seventeen years of age, officiated in his sacred capacity with such extraordinary gracefulness and majesty, that the people, reflecting on the merit of his ancestors, could not forbear expressing their admiration. This circumstance excited the jealousy of Herod, who hired some base wretches to put a period to the life of Aristobulus, by holding him under water in a bath, to which he was invited after the solemnity.

Alexandra having written an account of these cruel proceedings to Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, Herod was summoned to appear before Marc Antony at Laodicea; but he bribed his judge so high, that on the day of judgment he was most basely absolved; and Cleopatra's avaricious demands were pacified with the province of Cœle-Syria.

Previously, however, to his departure on this business, Herod commanded his uncle Joseph, whom he left in care of the government, to put Mariamne to death, in case he should be condemned by Antony. This injunction was imprudently communicated to Mariamne, who, on the return of her husband, reproached him with it. Salome, the king's sister, accused the virtuous Mariamne of a criminal correspondence with Joseph. Herod, therefore, commanded his ill-fated uncle to be put to death, and caused Alexandra to be loaded with chains, and thrown into prison.

(B. C. 30.) On the defeat of his patron, Marc Antony, at Actium, Herod resolved to make his peace with the conqueror. Before setting out, however, on this business, he caused Hyrcanus, the venerable pontiff, who had returned from Babylon, to be beheaded, in order to rid himself of the only surviving male of the Asmonean race. He then sent his queen and her mother Alexandra into the fortress of Massada, under the care of his treasurer, and one of his chief confidants, with orders to put these princesses to death on the first intelligence of his ill success. Having taken these precautions, he embarked for Rhodes, where he obtained an audience of Augustus, whom he addressed in a speech so well composed and appropriate, that the emperor permitted him to wear the diadem in his presence, and conferred on him several other marks of peculiar esteem.

Elated with his success, Herod made some noble presents to Augustus and his favourites, and returned to his metropolis highly pleased. His happiness, however, was considerably damped by the reception which he met with from his beloved consort, and her exasperated mother, who had discovered the fatal orders that he had left with the governors of Massada. Mariamne's affection became totally alienated from her husband; and through the suggestions of Salome, her inveterate enemy, she was tried, condemned, and put to death for a crime to which her heart was an entire stranger. (B. C. 29.) This cruel act, however, oppressed Herod with such indescribable remorse, that his life became a burthen, and in the midst of his highest festivity he would call on the name of Mariamne.—Alexandra was also put to death soon after her injured daughter.

Mariamne had left Herod two sons, Alexander and

Aristobulus, whom the father caused to be brought up at Rome, and who, after finishing their education, were married. The former espoused Glaphyra, the daughter of Archelaus king of Cappadocia; and the latter, Berenice, the daughter of Salome. The love and admiration, however, which the people expressed for these accomplished youths, could not gratify the turbulent Salome, in consequence of whose repeated accusations and malicious hints, Herod heaped great favours on Antipater, another of his sons, who had been hitherto educated privately. This conduct of the king roused the resentment of the other brothers; and having uttered some indiscreet speeches against their father, they were accused of high-treason, and dragged to Rome, where Augustus affected a reconciliation between Herod and them.

But the jealousy of the king, the indiscretion of his sons, and the indefatigable exertions of their enemies, soon laid the foundation for fresh dissensions. Alexander being thrown into prison, sent his father four several confessions, which implicated the whole court, the ministers, Pheroras the brother of Herod, and Salome. This accusation rendered Herod the sport of his own fury and suspicions. Night and day, he imagined that he saw his sons armed with daggers, and ready to strike the fatal blow. The situation of the tyrant was as much to be deplored as that of the victims of his cruelty. It was, however, proved that his sons had never made any attempt against his life or his crown. Yet such was the influence of Salome, that she alarmed her brother with fresh plots and intended assassinations (B. C. 8); and Alexander and Aristobulus, after undergoing a trial, in which Herod was the accuser, were at last put to death.

Soon after this tragical event, Herod commanded the Jewish nation to take an oath of allegiance to Augustus and himself; but this being contrary to the law of Moses, great numbers opposed the edict, and among the rest the wife of Pheroras, the brother of Herod. Pheroras retired to his tetrarchy in disgust; and Antipater, the son of the king, procuring an appointment at Rome, they entered into a conspiracy for the destruction of Herod. On the death of Pheroras, the treason was completely unravelled, and Herod had the mortification to find a real and implacable enemy in that son, for whom he had put to death two virtuous youths.

In the reign of Herod was born Jesus Christ, or the Messiah, who was appointed to be the saviour of mankind by dying for their sins. The appearance of a miraculous star induced the Eastern magi to hasten to the Jewish metropolis in quest of the new-born king; and the grand sanhedrim directed them to Bethlehem, on the authority of the ancient prophets. When Herod was informed of their errand, he began to consider the new-born Messiah as a dangerous rival, and formed a diabolical design for his destruction, which, however, was frustrated by the interposition of Divine Providence.

Antipater, the son of Herod, having been found guilty of conspiring against his father, was put to death. Herod fell into a loathsome and painful disease, and finding his end approaching, he ordered the chief men of the nation to be assembled at Jericho, and shut up in the hippodrome, and obliged Salome and her husband Alexas to promise that they would cause them all to be massacred as soon as the breath quitted his body. This was intended by the tyrant as an expedient to prevent their rejoicing at his decease. As soon, however, as Herod was dead (A. D. 1), the prisonets in the circus were allowed to depart to their respective habitations.

Herod appointed his son Archelaus his successor, but required that the appointment should be confirmed by Cæsar. In consequence of this, Archelaus was obliged to visit Rome. He presented to Cæsar a memorial, in which he exhibited his title to the regal dignity, the particulars of Herod's last will, and the inventory of the treasures which that monarch left behind him. Antipas, who had been appointed to the government by Herod's *first* will, was persuaded by the subtle Salome to oppose his brother. A deputation was also sent from Judea to express an abhorrence of the Herodian family, and to request an abolition of the monarchical government. Augustus, however, bestowed one half of the kingdom upon Archelaus, under the title of ethnarch, or governor of a nation, and promised to invest him with the insignia of royalty as soon as he rendered himself worthy of such distinction. The remainder was divided between Herod's other sons, Philip and Antipas.

Archelaus had no sooner returned into Judea, than he began to exhibit tokens of his arbitrary and vindictive temper, and abandoned himself to tyranny and luxury. On

the representation of the public sufferings, Augustus, having heard both the accusers and the accused, banished the ungrateful ethnarch to the city of Vienne in Dauphiny (A. D. 6), and caused Judea to be taxed as a province of the Roman empire.

Pontius Pilate, soon after he was appointed procurator of Judea (A. D. 20), introduced into Jerusalem the Roman standards, which the Jews considered as the vilest abominations. The people, therefore, prostrated themselves five days and five nights at the gate of his palace, and besought him to remove these objects of scandal. Pilate commanded the soldiers to kill such as refused to depart; but the Jews meekly offered their necks to the assassins. This passive constancy induced Pilate to remove the offensive standards.

(A. D. 30.) At this time, Jesus Christ received the rite of baptism from the hand of his pious harbinger, John the Baptist, and the Holy Ghost visibly descended on him in the form of a dove, whilst a voice from Heaven was heard, saying, "This is my beloved son, in whom I am well pleased." He then commenced his public ministry, and gave evident proofs of his divinity by changing water into wine at a marriage festival in Cana of Galilee. Having called some obscure and illiterate men to be his disciples, he travelled about the country preaching the glad tidings of salvation, healing all manner of diseases, illustrating the laws of his heavenly father, raising the dead, casting out devils, giving speech to the dumb, sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, and activity to the lame; till, at length, he submitted to the ignominious death of the cross, and meekly endured the heavy chastisement of divine justice, for the ransom of a rebellious but beloved world.

(A. D. 33.) On the third day after his crucifixion, his disciples, whose faith had proved unequal to the severe trial of beholding their *king* expire upon the cross, were transported with joy at the happy news of his resurrection. He afterwards shewed himself openly to them, and ordered them to go and preach his doctrine throughout the whole earth. In an enlightened age, twelve rude and ignorant men taught and established a religion, which is founded on mysteries, which is hostile to pleasure, and which is an enemy to pomp and to every thing that flatters the pride of man. Notwithstanding the opposition of the learned,

and the prejudice of sovereigns, it overspread the whole earth, and its success is alone sufficient to establish the truth of its divine origin.

Soon after the decease of Tiberius, Agrippa, grandson of Herod the Great, who had been thrown into prison and loaded with chains by order of the emperor, was invested with the tetrarchy of his deceased uncle Philip, and that of Abylene in Syria, together with the title of king. Claudius indulged him with some important privileges, entered into a solemn alliance with him, and issued several edicts highly beneficial to the Jewish nation. Agrippa being at Cæsarea, addressed an elegant speech to the deputies of Tyre and Sidon, who exclaimed that it was the voice of a god, and not of a man; and on his encouraging this impious adulation, he was smitten with a dreadful disease, of which he died.

On the death of Agrippa, Judea was again converted into a province of the empire, and Caspius Fadus was nominated to the government. Herod, king of Chalcis, obtained the superintendency of the temple and sacred treasury, together with the authority of appointing the high-priest. At length, Judea was committed to the care of a governor called Claudius Felix, under whom the Jewish affairs became extremely bad, and who exercised his cruelty on all persons indiscriminately, whom his avarice or his resentment had marked out for destruction.

He was succeeded by Portius Festus, who perceived that even the priests had commenced a civil war among themselves, and who was, therefore, under the necessity of beginning his government with the utmost severity, that he might suppress the disorders which now filled the city, the country, and sometimes the temple with blood.

On the death of Festus, Albinus was appointed governor; but (A. D. 64), he was recalled by Nero, and Gessius Florus nominated his successor. This abandoned wretch, whose chief delight consisted in rapine, murder, and oppression, used his utmost exertions to provoke the nation to open rebellion. The people detested Florus and the Romans so much, that wherever the Jews were superior in numbers, none of them were spared. The flames of intestine war began to rage with irresistible fury. (A. D. 69.) Twenty thousand Jews were massacred in Cæsarea; two thousand at Ptolemais; fifty thousand at Alexandria; and three or four thousand in one day at Jerusalem;—whilst

the Jews on their part spared neither Syrians nor Romans, but retaliated their cruelties upon them.

The Jews having vanquished Cestius, the Syrian governor, appointed Josephus, a Jewish priest of considerable rank, over the two Galilees; left the care of the metropolis to Ananus the high-priest; and entrusted the government of Idumea to Eleazer, the chief of the Zealots. Nero being informed of these preparations, commanded Vespasian to march into Judea. Accordingly, that general advanced into the kingdom, took possession of the strong places, and drove into the centre of the country those whom religious zeal, or the fear of being punished for their barbarities, prevented from surrendering themselves to the Romans.

(A. D. 70.) While those members of the Jewish nation, who clearly foresaw the consequences of the impending destruction, endeavoured to elude the danger by a timely submission to the Romans, the opposite and more numerous party rejected all pacific measures, and breathed nothing but slaughter, rapine, and devastation. These abandoned wretches, under the pretence of religion, began to exercise their wanton cruelty in plundering and assassinating all who presumed to oppose them in the vicinage of Jerusalem. They entered the capital with Zechariah and Eleazer at their head, but were repulsed by Ananus the late high-priest. At length, however, they called in the assistance of the Idumeans, who found means to introduce themselves into the temple. Twelve thousand individuals of noble extraction were murdered by the most cruel methods; and Jerusalem was filled with anguish and distress.

In the mean time, Vespasian remained at Cæsarea, an idle spectator of the melancholy state of the revolted province, and well aware that the power of the Jews declined daily, in consequence of their intestine broils and massacres. The event justified his unusual indolence, and fully accomplished the awful predictions which had been frequently pronounced against the Jewish nation. The Zealots, having triumphed over the lives and property of their opponents, turned their murderous weapons against each other. The dissensions continued to increase, and involved the threatened city in new and accumulated calamities.

(A. D. 71.) Such was the deplorable condition of Jerusalem, when Vespasian, who had been invested with the

imperial purple, left his son Titus to terminate the war. Titus having received some powerful reinforcements, marched against the metropolis with intent to besiege it. He began, however, by offering proposals of peace, which the Zealots, though they agreed not among themselves, refused to accept. John and Simon, the chiefs of the two factions in the city, carried on war against each other with fury and obstinacy, but united in repelling the Romans. Titus, therefore, commenced the siege with great fury. A famine, which for some time afflicted the city, was followed by a pestilence. Nothing was to be seen in Jerusalem but putrescent bodies, emaciated invalids, and objects of the deepest distress. Even those who escaped to the Roman camp, were murdered by the soldiers, on a supposition that they had swallowed great quantities of gold. The inhumanity of the faction within rendered the agonies and dying groans of their brethren the subject of their diabolical mirth, and exercised on the lifeless bodies every species of wanton barbarity. An unhappy mother was obliged by want of food to kill and eat her own child.

Notwithstanding the obstinate resistance of the Jews, the Romans, by repeated assaults, in which machines and fire were employed with equal success, established themselves in the city, or rather on heaps of ruins. The desolation of Jerusalem, on being abandoned to the flames, may be easily conceived. In vain Titus endeavoured to preserve the temple from the fury of the soldiers: not a stone of it was left upon another. He could preserve only the sacred vessels and the instruments of sacrifice. According to the most moderate computation, the numbers of slain and prisoners in the course of this fatal war with Rome, amounted to one million four hundred and sixty-two thousand, of whom the greatest part were strangers, invited from foreign countries, to assist their brethren of Judea in defending their laws, liberty, and religion. John and Simon, the two chiefs of the rebels, were taken and brought to Titus, who commanded them to be reserved for his triumph.

(A. D. 73.) Vespasian ordered the Jewish lands to be sold for his own use; commanded all the Jews to pay annually half a shekel into the imperial treasury; and caused all the branches of the house of Judah to be cut off, that they might not entertain vain hopes of a *future* Messiah. Since that period, the Jews have been strangers and vagabonds, and objects of hatred and contempt, in all parts of *the earth*.

Questions on the History of the Jews.

What was the Land of Canaan afterwards denominated? Why was it called the Holy Land? How was it situated? How is it described by Moses? What is it at present?

How was Judea divided among the Israelites?

What was the religion of the Jews? What were their laws, sacrifices, and ceremonies?

What was their government? What did their laws enjoin? What were their principal solemnities? By what were the sabbatic year, and the year of jubilee, distinguished?

Did the Jews cultivate the knowledge of theology? Were they ignorant of astronomy? What was their language? Did they very early possess the art of writing?

In what arts did the Israelites excel?

What were their trades and commerce? What was their knowledge of navigation?

Who was the progenitor and founder of the Jewish nation? What was his age when he removed to Haran? Whither did he thence migrate, and of what did God assure him? What obliged Abraham to remove into Egypt, and what took place in that country?

When did Abraham return into Canaan, and take to him Hagar, the handmaid of Sarah? What was the name of the son whom Hagar bore? Did Sarah bear a son? Why was Isaac circumcised?

What became of Ishmael, and of whom was he the father? When Abraham was commanded to slay his son Isaac, did he hesitate?

To whom was Isaac married? After the death of Sarah, whom did Abraham marry, and what sons had the patriarch by her? At what age died Abraham, and where, and by whom was he buried?

What sons had Rebecca, and how were they distinguished? Did Jacob purchase the birth-right of Esau, and also deprive him of his father's blessing? Why was the birth-right of the elder so much esteemed? Whither did Jacob flee, and whom did he marry? What children had Jacob?

What did Jacob when he set out to revisit his native land? What was the nature of the interview between Esau and Jacob? After that, where did Esau and Jacob reside? At what age died Isaac, and where was he buried?

What was the consequence of Jacob's partiality for his son Joseph? Whither did the Ishmaelites carry Joseph, and to whom did they sell him? Why was Joseph cast into prison, and what happened there?

For what reason was Joseph honoured with the warmest esteem of Pharaoh? What did Joseph accomplish during the seven plentiful years? Whose daughter did Pharaoh bestow on Joseph in marriage?

By what were the seven plentiful years followed? Why did Jacob send ten of his sons into Egypt? How were they treated by Joseph?

Why did Joseph send for his father Jacob? and in what part of the country did the patriarch and his sons take up their abode?

What did Jacob when he found that his dissolution was at hand? What followed the death of Jacob, and how and where was he buried?

Of what did Joseph assure his brethren at the time of his death; what did he request of them; and at what age did he die?

When did the persecution of the Israelites in Egypt commence?

What measures did Pharaoh adopt to prevent the increase of the Israelites?

How was Moses preserved, and from what circumstance was his name derived?

Why did Moses flee into the land of Midian, how long did he continue there; and what were the commands which he there received from God? Did Pharaoh comply with the request of Moses and Aaron?

What miracles did Moses perform before Pharaoh? What calamity induced Pharaoh to allow the Israelites to depart?

At the head of what numbers did Moses take his departure out of Egypt? How were they guided in their progress? How did the Israelites pass the Red Sea; and how were Pharaoh and his forces overwhelmed?

What took place at the desert of Zin? At what time was the manna sent; and how was water supplied?

What took place at mount Sinai? When Moses descended from the mount, at what was he violently enraged?

In what time was the tabernacle erected, where was it placed; and who offered the sacrifices?

What did the violent murmuring of the people at Taberah occasion? By what was an audacious complaint against the manna followed? In consequence of an insurrection, resulting from the report of the spies, what did God affirm?

After numbering the people, what were the last acts of Moses? Where did he die, and where was he buried?

After succeeding to the office of Moses, what did Joshua perform? What greatly facilitated the conquest of Canaan? How was the Land of Promise divided? What did Joshua prevail on the people to renew? At what age did he die, and where was he buried?

What did the tribe of Judah, under the command of Caleb, perform? What did the other tribes?

Why did the Israelites extirpate nearly the whole tribe of Benjamin?

To whom were the Israelites enslaved, and by whom were they delivered? In what state were the Israelites at the time of Gideon's death? Whom did Abimelech slay?

By whom were the people of Israel delivered from the oppression of the Philistines and Ammonites? What was the vow of Jephthah, and who was the victim?

By what means did Samson vanquish the Philistines?

For what reason was God displeased with Eli, and what was his punishment?

In what capacity did Samuel act, and whom did he proclaim king?

What was the first action of Saul after he obtained the regal dignity? Did he always follow the advice of Samuel, and obey the commands of God? Whom did Samuel anoint king in the room of Saul?

Who, and by what means, dispelled the melancholy of Saul? Of what was the victory of David over Goliath productive?

When died Samuel, and where was he buried? Whom did Saul induce to raise up the prophet Samuel, and for what purpose? What said Samuel to Saul, and was it fulfilled? Was David formally acknowledged king by all the tribes?

What was the character of the reign of David?

What circumstance tarnished the lustre of David's former actions? Did David entreat pardon of God for these crimes?

Of what complexion was the reign of David from this time? Of what crimes was his son Absalom guilty?

Whom did David cause to be proclaimed his successor? When died David, and where was he buried?

What did Solomon request of God? and in what instances did the wisdom and judgment of Solomon appear?

When did Solomon lay the foundation of the temple, and in what time was this magnificent edifice completed?

To what did Solomon become a slave in his old age, and what was the punishment which God foretold should follow? When died Solomon, and where was he buried?

What was the answer of Rehoboam to the people of Shechem, who asked for a redress of grievances? and what was the consequence of that answer?

For what reason did Jeroboam set up two golden calves at Dan and Bethel, and also build idolatrous edifices?

Did many of the people renew their former allegiance to Rehoboam? For what reason, and by what means, was this prince punished?

What did Abijah, on succeeding Rehoboam? What was the character of Asa, and by whom was he succeeded?

What was the conduct of Ahab; whom did he marry; and what was the declaration of the prophet Elijah?

During the reign of Ahab, by whom was the throne of Judah filled?

Whom did Ahaziah succeed, and what idol did he consult on his recovery from a fall?

Whom did Jehoram succeed, and what remarkable event took place in his reign?

Whom did Jehu slay, and was his conduct pleasing to God? Did Jehu follow the abominations of Jeroboam, and what was the consequence?

What was the conduct of Athaliah, the daughter of Jezebel? What took place in the reign of Joash?

Whom did Amaziah succeed? What were his conduct and death, and by whom was he succeeded?

What was the conduct of Jeroboam II., and how long did he reign? By whom was he succeeded, and from what period may be dated the downfall of the kingdom of Israel?

What was the conduct of Azariah, king of Judah, and why was he punished? What were the actions of Jotham? What was the state of the kingdom of Israel during this period?

What was the conduct of Ahaz king of Judah, and of what character was his reign?

What was the conduct of Hezekiah, on ascending the throne of Judah?

What did Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, do to Israel? What became of the captive Israelites? and when was the awful destruction of the Israelitish kingdom? Who was the last king of Israel?

How did Hezekiah endeavour to prevent the invasion of Judah? For what did the prophet Isaiah exhort Hezekiah to prepare? What miracle confirmed the promises of God in favour of Hezekiah? What became of Sennacherib? and what was the character of Hezekiah?

By whom was Hezekiah succeeded, and what may be dated from his accession? Whither was Manasseh carried captive, and what did he become after his restoration? By whom was he succeeded?

What were the character and conduct of Josiah, king of Judah? What expired with him?

Whither was Jehoahaz carried prisoner, and by whom? To whom was the sceptre transferred, and what was his character? Who subjugated the whole country, carried Jehoiakim captive to Babylon, and afterwards restored him, and on what conditions? When was Jehoiakim slain?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was the consequence of his actions?

Why did Nebuchadnezzar besiege and take Jerusalem? What was done to the city, the temple, and the unhappy Jews? Did the prophet Jeremiah remain in captivity at Babylon? When did this melancholy catastrophe happen to the Jewish monarchy?

How long did the Jews remain in captivity at Babylon? From what period were the men of Israel and Judah blended together, and under what name? What number of the Jews returned from captivity, under the conduct of Zerubbabel and Joshua the high-priest? When was the foundation of the temple laid? when allowed to be rebuilt? and how was it dedicated?

Who was Ezra, and what was the nature of the commission which he received from Artaxerxes? On his arrival at Jerusalem, what did he perform?

By whom was Ezra succeeded, and what did he perform? What was the change in the government after the death of Nehemiah?

To whom was the administration of the Jewish affairs now intrusted?

What happened in Judea in the thirty-fourth year of Artaxerxes Mnemon? By whom was Johanan succeeded, and what took place during his pontificate?

On the division of the Macedonian empire, how was Palestine circumstanced? Was it subject to Ptolemy, to Antigonus, and to Ptolemy Soter? When died Simon the Jewish high-priest, what was his character, and by whom was he succeeded? What was the conduct of Ptolemy Philadelphus to the Jews? and by whom was Eleazer, the high-priest, succeeded?

What was the conduct of Ptolemy Philopater in Judea? how was it punished?

On the death of Philopater, to whom did the Jews submit? What was the state of Judea during the high priesthood of Onias III.?

To whom was the high-priesthood sold by the governors of Syria? What was the conduct of Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria, to the Jews?

How did his general Apollonius treat Jerusalem and the Jews? What did the Syrians build opposite to the temple?

What was the nature of the decree which Antiochus issued? How were the temple and altar profaned? Were the Jews compelled to worship idols? Who was one of the principal victims of the cruelty of Antiochus? How did the seven brethren, and their mother, endure the tortures?

How did God espouse the cause of his people?

What actions did Judas Maccabeus perform? Did Antiochus conclude a lasting peace with the Jews?

Did Antiochus Eupator conclude a peace with the Jews, and was it violated? What was the character of Alcimus, on whom Demetrius, the successor of Antiochus Eupator in the throne of Syria, bestowed the high-priesthood?

By what means did Bacchides and Alcimus attempt the destruction

of Judas Maccabeus? Did the Jews defeat Nicanor, the Syrian general, in battle?

Did Judas enter into an alliance with the Romans? How was he slain?

By whom was Judas succeeded? How did Jonathan become deputy-governor of Judea? and what was the nature of his government?

Did the troubles in Syria afford the Jews an opportunity of wholly recovering their liberty? What were the proposals made by Demetrius and Alexander Balas, respectively, to Jonathan? What offices did Ptolemy Philometer entrust to the Jews?

For what reason, and by whom, was a rich present, with the grant of the territory of Ekron, sent to Jonathan? How, and where, was Jonathan murdered? Who was his successor?

What honour did Demetrius confer on Simon? What dignities and immunities did Antiochus confer on the Jewish pontiff? What was the conduct of Antiochus towards Simon, after the former had established himself in the regal dignity? Were the Syrians defeated in battle, and by whom?

How was Simon, with his two sons, Judas and Matthias, assassinated? By whom was Simon succeeded?

On what conditions did Antiochus consent to grant the Jews a peace? At whose death did Hyrcanus effect a complete deliverance of his nation from the oppression of Syria? What other objects did he effect? What was the state of religion, and in what condition was the country at his death?

By whom was Hyrcanus succeeded, whom did Aristobulus put to death, and what did he assume? By whom was Aristobulus succeeded? Who vilified the government of Alexander? What rebellions did he crush, and to whom did he become an object of terror? By what was the death of Alexander hastened, and to whom did he bequeath the government?

Whom did Alexandra appoint as her successor, and who assumed the regal state and title?

By whom were the troops of Aristobulus defeated? and in what manner did Pompey decide between the pretensions of Hyrcanus and Aristobulus?

By whom were the forces of Pompey admitted into the city of Jerusalem? How was the temple taken? To what was Hyrcanus restored, and of what deprived? and what became of Aristobulus and his four children?

To whom did Hyrcanus leave the care of his affairs? Did Alexander, the son of Aristobulus, raise an army in Judea? By whom was he defeated, and how did the Romans divide the province of Judea? What was the fate of Aristobulus, and of his son Alexander?

On what account, and by whom, was Antipater made procurator of Judea? What was the result of the petition of Antigonus to Julius Cæsar?

Of what districts of Judea did Antipater appoint his two sons, Phasael and Herod, to be governors? On what account was Herod summoned before Hyrcanus and the sanhedrim, and what was his conduct?

By whom was Antipater poisoned, and his government seized? What was the fate of Malichus? By whom were Phasael and Herod created tetrarchs?

Whom did Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus, procure to assist in conquering Judea, and in deposing Hyrcanus? By whom were

Phasaël and Hyrcanus thrown into close confinement? What was the punishment of Hyrcanus, and what the fate of Phasaël?

Whose assistance did Herod seek? Who appointed Herod to fill the Jewish throne? Whom did he besiege in Jerusalem? Whom did he marry, and what was her character? After what time was Jerusalem taken by Herod and the Roman general, and what did its reduction terminate? What was the fate of Antigonus?

What means did Herod take to replenish his treasury? Whom did he invest with the pontifical dignity? What circumstance excited the jealousy of Herod, and induced him to put to death Aristobulus, the brother of Mariamne?

Why was Herod summoned to appear before Marc Antony at Laodicea, and how was his acquittal obtained? For what reason did Herod put to death his uncle Joseph, and imprison Alexandra, the mother of Mariamne?

Whom did Herod cause to be beheaded before he set out for Rhodes, to meet Augustus? Whither did he send his queen and his mother Alexandra? What was his success with the emperor Augustus?

What was the reception which he met with from his consort and her mother Alexandra? What was the fate of Mariamne, and what the effect produced on Herod by her death? What was the fate of Alexandra?

Where were Alexander and Aristobulus, two of the sons of Herod and Mariamne, educated, and whom did they marry? What was the conduct of Herod to Antipater, another son, and of what was it productive? Did Augustus effect a reconciliation between Herod and his two sons Alexander and Aristobulus?

Did fresh dissensions arise in the family of Herod? Whom did his son Alexander accuse? What was the effect of this accusation on the mind of Herod? What was the fate of Alexander and Aristobulus?

What was the oath which the Jewish nation refused to take, at the command of Herod? By whom was a conspiracy entered into for the destruction of Herod? and whom did Herod find to be his real enemy?

In what reign was born Jesus Christ? What induced the Eastern magi to go to Jerusalem, in quest of the new-born king? Whither, and on what authority, did the Jewish sanhedrim direct them? What diabolical design of Herod, on this occasion, was frustrated?

What was the fate of Antipater? When Herod felt his end approaching, what order did he give, and for what purpose? Was this order obeyed?

Whom did Herod appoint his successor? Did Antipas oppose this appointment? How did Augustus adjust the claims of the competitors?

What was the conduct of Archelaus after his return into Judea? Whither was he banished by Augustus, and how was Judea taxed?

What did Pontius Pilate introduce into Jerusalem? How were they considered by the people, and what means did the Jews successfully adopt for their removal?

At what time, and by whom, was Jesus Christ baptized? What took place at his baptism? When did he commence his ministry? Whom did he choose for his disciples? What were his actions? What was the nature of his death? and for what purpose did Christ endure it?

When did our Saviour rise from the dead? What command did he give to his disciples? What did they teach and establish? What was the success of Christianity sufficient of itself to establish?

Soon after the decease of Tiberius, with what was Agrippa, the grandson of Herod, invested? With what privileges did Claudius indulge him? and what were the cause and nature of his death?

On the death of Agrippa, how was Judea governed? and what was the state of the Jewish affairs under Claudius Felix?

How did Portius Festus commence his government?

What was the character of Gessius Florus? What was his conduct, and what did it occasion? When commenced the intestine war? and what was the fate of the Jews, Syrians, and Romans?

After vanquishing Cestius, the Syrian governor, what measures did the Jews adopt? and what did Vespasian perform?

What was the conduct of the Jewish nation to the Romans, at this period? Under the pretence of religion, what did numbers of the Jews exercise? With what was Jerusalem filled?

Where, and for what purpose, did Vespasian remain an idle spectator? What did the event justify, and fully accomplish? On whom did the Zealots turn their weapons? and in what was Jerusalem involved?

Whom did Vespasian leave to terminate the war? Did Titus besiege the city of Jerusalem? By what was a famine in the city followed? What was the fate of those Jews who escaped to the Roman camp? What was the conduct of the faction within the city? What was an unhappy mother obliged to do?

By what means did the Romans establish themselves in the city? What was the desolation of Jerusalem? What did Titus endeavour to preserve? What was the number of the slain and of prisoners in this war? and what was the fate of John and Simon, the two chiefs of the rebels?

What was the conduct of Vespasian towards the conquered? and since that period what has been the fate of the Jews?

THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

THE most ancient of the four great empires was that of Assyria; and the name of this country was derived from Ashur, who was the first settler in it after the flood. Assyria Proper was bounded on the north by Armenia; on the west by the Tigris; on the south by Susiana; and on the east by Media. Its principal province was Adiabene, by which the whole country was sometimes designated, and in which stood the famous city of Nineveh, the capital of the Assyrian empire.

Ctesias, whose history is too romantic to deserve credit, represents Ninus as the founder of this great empire, and as a prince of the most extraordinary endowments and prowess. He conquered almost all Asia between the Tanais and the Nile, and built the city of Nineveh, the circumference of which was sixty miles.

His widow Semiramis determined to eclipse the glory of

her husband, and founded the city of Babylon, in building which she employed two millions of labourers. She conquered Media, and invaded India with an immense army. She was, however, defeated by Stabrobates, a king of that country, who encountered her at the head of a numerous body of forces.

Semiramis was succeeded by her son Ninyas, who was a pusillanimous and voluptuous prince, and who shut himself up in his palace, that his subjects might regard him as a god.

Sardanapalus was the last and most vicious of the Assyrian monarchs, and descended to such a state of depravity as to assume the dress and manners of a prostitute. In his time the Medes, Babylonians, and Persians, assisted by the Arabians, revolted and shook off the yoke; and Sardanapalus, being besieged in Nineveh, set fire to his palace, and destroyed himself and all his concubines; and with him ended the Assyrian empire, after it had subsisted one thousand four hundred years. Such is the account of Ctesias; but we subjoin the more genuine narration of the Jewish historians.

The first king of this country was Pul, or Phul, who subdued Israel (B. C. 771), and rendered it tributary, in the reign of Menahem.

Tiglath-Pileser, the son of Pul, carried the Israelites away captive into Assyria; and having slain Rezin, king of Damascus, he removed the people into his own kingdom, and put an end to that state.

(B. C. 728) He was succeeded by his son Shalmaneser, who carried the king of Israel and all his subjects into captivity, and dispersed them through his extensive empire. This prince also conquered Syria and Phœnicia (B. C. 717), but could not entirely subdue Tyre.

The next king of Assyria was Sennacherib, who, not content with rendering Hezekiah tributary to him, sent his general Rabshakeh against Jerusalem. That city, however, was preserved by the interposition of Divine Providence; and Sennacherib hastened back into his own country, where he was slain by his sons, Adrammelech and Sharezer.

(B. C. 710.) He was succeeded by his son Esar-Haddon, who united the sceptre of Babylon to that of Nineveh, and who completed the ruin of the Syrians and the Israelites.

(B. C. 668.) To him succeeded Saosduchius, or Saosducheus, who is the Nebuchadnezzar of the Scriptures, and who subjected the Medes, and destroyed Ecbatana,

their magnificent capital. He also sent an army against the Jews, under the command of his general Holophernes, whose head Judith, a Jewess, cut off and put into a bag, and thus delivered her country. Nebuchadnezzar, being puffed up with his victories, became deranged, but after seven years recovered his reason. In the reign of this prince the Assyrian empire attained the height of its glory, and also began to decline, till it was gradually swallowed up by that of the Babylonians.

Questions on the Assyrian Empire.

Which was the most ancient of the four great empires? From whom did Assyria derive its name? How was Assyria Proper bounded? Which was its principal province, and what the name of its capital?

What does Ctesias represent Ninus to have been? and what were said to have been the actions of Ninus?

What is recorded of Semiramis?

Who was the successor of Semiramis? and what were his character and conduct?

What was the character of Sardanapalus? What took place in his time, and what was his fate, and that of the Assyrian empire? By whom is this account given?

According to the Jewish historians, who was the first king of this country? and what were his actions?

What were the actions of Tiglath-Pileser, the son of Pul?

By whom was Tiglath-Pileser succeeded; and what did his successor perform?

What were the conduct and fate of Sennacherib?

By whom was Sennacherib succeeded? and what did he perform?

By whom was Esar-Haddon succeeded? What were his actions? Did Nebuchadnezzar lose, and afterwards recover, his reason? When did the Assyrian empire attain the height of its glory? and what was its fate?

THE BABYLONIAN EMPIRE.

BABYLON was known in ancient times by the names of *Shinar*, *Shinaar*, &c. and is generally supposed to have been called Babylon from the tower of Babel, and Chaldæa from the Chaldæans. By the sacred writers the whole country is called Chaldæa, but profane authors usually denominate it Babylonia. It lies between 30 and 35 degrees of north latitude; and it is bounded on the north by Mesopotamia, on the east by the Tigris, on the west by Arabia

Deserta, and on the south by the Persian Gulf and of Arabia Felix.

The richness of the soil, the general excellence of the climate, and the industry of the inhabitants, rendered this country extremely fertile. Its great fertility, however, must be principally ascribed to the overflowing of the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which, during the months of June, July, and August, inundate the country by means of the snow melting on the mountains of Armenia. To guard against these annual floods, the inhabitants cut a great number of artificial rivers or canals, by which the waters were distributed, and an easy communication between one part and another was effected. It is commonly supposed that this country contained, within its limits, at least great part of Paradise; and here was the plain of *Shinar*, or *Senjar*, where the whole race of mankind were collected after the flood, and whence they dispersed themselves over the face of the earth.

It is said that idolatry originated on the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris, whence it spread into Egypt and Greece. Pul, Bel, or Jupiter, was the same god who directs the thunder, and governs the destinies of men. The Astarte of the Syrians, the Mylitta of the Babylonians, and the Venus of the Greeks, were one and the same, a woman of the greatest beauty, and the mother of the Graces and Loves. The Babylonish idols were of gold, of silver, and of wood, and being carried about in procession, were worshipped by the surrounding multitudes.

Their temples were filled with smoke and dust, caused by the numerous resort of votaries. Their priests appropriated to themselves whatever was offered as a sacrifice to their gods. The Babylonians first practised the horrid custom of sacrificing human victims to appease or conciliate their gods, and from them it was communicated to some of the surrounding nations.

No man had any power over his own daughters; but as soon as they were marriageable, they were exposed in some public place, in the midst of a crowd of men, who attended on these occasions, and sold one by one. The most beautiful were first put up, and after they had been delivered to the highest bidders, the money raised by this sale was applied in behalf of those to whom nature had not been so lavish of exterior charms. Having no physicians, the Babylonians *exposed their sick* in the most frequented places, that every

one might see them and offer his advice, if he had any knowledge of the disease.

The Babylonians were famed for learning, particularly the Chaldeans, who were their priests, philosophers, astronomers, and soothsayers. The Babylonians, properly so called, applied themselves to the arts, and were good mathematicians, mechanics, and architects, ingenious in the casting of metals, and famous for their manufactures, particularly for their rich embroideries, magnificent carpets, and fine linen.

There exists in the Babylonish history, a chasm of several hundred years, from the time of Nimrod, after which, the first king to be mentioned is Nabonassar, (B. C. 747), who is well known from the æra which passes under his name. To account for Babylon being an independent nation when the Assyrian monarchy was in its full glory, it seems probable that Pul, the first Assyrian sovereign, left two sons, Tiglath-Pileser and Nabonassar, of whom the former took possession of Assyria, and the latter of Babylon, and that they lived in strict amity with each other.

We pass over the successors of Nabonassar, till we come to Nabopallasar, who transferred the seat of the Assyrian monarchy to Babylon, and who joined Cyaxares the Mede, in a war against Assyria, which they reduced to a very low condition.

Nabopallasar, being advanced in years, took his son Nebuchadnezzar as a partner in the kingdom. The young prince obtained a complete victory over the Egyptians (B. C. 606), and marching into Judea, took Jerusalem, rifled the temple, and compelled Jehoiakim to promise an annual tribute to the Babylonians. Taking advantage of his success, Nebuchadnezzar made himself master of all the country between the Nile and the Euphrates. Soon after the death of his father, he was greatly harassed by dreams, and the magi being unable to interpret them, Daniel, who had been brought to Babylon among the other Jewish captives, was introduced to the king and gave such complete satisfaction on the subject of the dreams, that the monarch fell on his face worshipping Daniel, and acknowledged his God to be the God of gods, and Lord of kings. He also invested Daniel with the government of Babylon, and appointed him chief of the wise men of the city.

Nebuchadnezzar having entered into an alliance with Cyaxares the Mede, they marched against Nineveh, which

they took and levelled with the ground, and put an end to the Assyrian empire. This mighty Babylonian prince, seemed to be the instrument of God's wrath to punish the wickedness of the surrounding nations.

Nebuchadnezzar had scarcely returned from the wars in which he had been engaged, before he was admonished by a dream, which none of his wise men could interpret. Daniel, however, declared that it was prophetic of the sentence pronounced against him by heaven, in consequence of which he was to be driven out from the society of men, and become as a beast, and remain in that state till he should be brought to a due sense of the supremacy and omnipotence of God, when his kingdom should once more revert to him. This happened accordingly; and we are informed, that Nebuchadnezzar was expelled the society of men, and that he ate grass as an ox, and his body was wet with the dew of heaven, till his hairs were grown like eagles' feathers, and his nails like birds' claws.

He was succeeded by his son Evil-Merodach, who, in the early part of his life, laid the foundations of that animosity in the Medes and Persians, which brought on the dissolution of the Babylonian empire. Having in a great hunting match entered the country of the Medes, he plundered and laid waste the neighbouring lands; and the Medes engaging his party, Evil-Merodach was put to the rout, and pursued to his own borders.

This prince was murdered by Neriglissar, his sister's husband, who succeeded to the vacant throne, and who having formed against the Medes and Persians a powerful league, raised a numerous army to oppose them. The Babylonians and their allies, however, were compelled to betake themselves to flight; and Neriglissar was killed in the pursuit.

He was succeeded by his son Laborosarchod, who addicted himself to all manner of wickedness, cruelty, and injustice. He slew the only son of Gobryas, a Babylonian lord, at a hunting match, because he pierced with his dart a wild beast which the king had missed. He caused the son of Godates, another Babylonian lord, to be made an eunuch, because one of his concubines had commended his beauty.

This king was slain by his subjects, and was succeeded by Nabonadius, who had a chief hand in the murder, and who is the same as Belshazzar in the book of Daniel. In

his reign Babylon, the metropolis of the East, was completely ruined. Cyrus, after subduing the several nations from the Ægean Sea to the Euphrates, and also Syria and Arabia, marched toward Babylon, which he closely besieged. It happened that Nabonadius entertained a thousand of his lords at a great banquet, and having profaned the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem, saw written on the wall, and afterwards heard from the mouth of Daniel, the awful doom, *that his kingdom was taken from him, and given to the Medes and Persians*. In that same night, and probably before the prophet could well explain to the terrified monarch and his guests the true nature and import of the sentence on the wall, the enemy entered the city, and put to the sword the king, the garrison, and all the inhabitants. Thus terminated the Babylonian empire, and thus were fulfilled the prophecies, which Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Daniel had uttered against it.

Questions on the Babylonian Empire.

By what names were Babylon anciently known? How is it denominated by the sacred writers, and how by profane authors? What are its situation and boundaries?

Was this country fertile, and to what was its fertility owing? What particular places did this country contain?

Where is idolatry said to have originated, and whither to have spread? What were the names and identity of the principal deities? Of what were the Babylonish idols formed, and how worshipped? With what were their temples filled? What did the priests appropriate to themselves? What horrid custom did the Babylonians first practise?

How did the Babylonians dispose of their daughters? In what manner were the sick treated?

For what were the Babylonians, particularly the Chaldæans, famed? To what did the Babylonians properly so called apply themselves?

After the time of Nimrod, what king is first mentioned? How is he known? How is Babylon to be accounted an independent nation when the Assyrian monarchy was in its full glory?

What did Nabopallasar accomplish?

How did Nebuchadnezzar become a partner in the kingdom? What did he achieve? By whom were his dreams interpreted? With what did he invest Daniel?

What did Nebuchadnezzar achieve in conjunction with Cyaxares the Mede? Of what does he seem to have been the instrument?

What was the dream by which Nebuchadnezzar was admonished after his return from the wars? How was it accomplished?

By whom was Nebuchadnezzar succeeded? Of what did he lay the foundation? What country did he plunder and lay waste?

By whom was Evil-Merodach killed and succeeded? By whom was Neriglissar defeated and slain?

By whom was Neriglissar succeeded, and what was his conduct?

By whom was Laborascarchod put to death, and by whom succeeded? What is Nabonadius denominated in the book of Daniel? What happened to Babylon in his reign? What was Nabonadius engaged in, when he saw the hand-writing on the wall? How was the Babylonian empire terminated, and how were fulfilled the predictions of the prophets?

MEDES

THE Medes were the descendants of Madai, the third son of Japhet, from whom was denominated a tract of country which was bounded on the north by part of the Caspian Sea; on the east by Parthia and Hyrcania; on the south by Persis, Susiana, and Assyria; and on the west by Armenia Major. The climate was extremely hot in the plains, and cold upon the mountains; and the productions of the country necessarily varied with the temperature. The air was generally insalubrious in the vicinity of the Caspian Sea, where the rivers, which supply that immense reservoir of water, frequently overflowed their banks, and occasioned noxious exhalations. In some parts of Media, bread was made of dried almonds: but in the southern districts, corn and wine abounded in great plenty.

The Medes were once a very warlike people; but they afterwards became effeminate and luxurious. When a law was once enacted, it was not in the king's power to repeal it; and hence the unalterable decrees of the Medes are frequently alluded to in Holy Writ. Their religion and laws were nearly the same as those of the Persians.

This people were subjugated by Pul, the founder of the Assyrian monarchy, or by his immediate successor, Tiglath-Pileser. They remained in subjection to the Assyrians till the reign of Sennacherib, when they shook off the yoke, and gallantly defended their recovered liberties. They lived some time without a king; but the licentiousness and anarchy, which began to prevail, enabled Dejoces, a subtle and ambitious Mede, to get himself raised to the regal dignity (B. C. 710). The first acts of the new sovereign were those of a haughty and imperious tyrant. He ordered a splendid palace and the famous city of Ecbatana to be built, selected guards for the safety of his person, and enacted very arbitrary laws. Being induced to invade Assy-

ma, his forces were defeated, and himself slain by Saosduchinus, or Nabuchadonosor.

(B. C. 656.) He was succeeded by his son Phraortes, who was a prince of an enterprising spirit, and who obtained possession of all the Upper Asia, between Mount Taurus and the river Halys. He also invaded Assyria, and besieged the metropolis of that country; but he perished in the attempt, with the greater part of his army.

(B. C. 635.) The crown of Media now devolved on Cyaxares, a prince of great courage and abilities, who avenged on the Assyrians the defeat and death of his father and grandfather. The Scythians, however, over-ran, and ravaged Media; and the king, in order to free himself from them, invited them to an entertainment, and caused them all to be massacred (B. C. 601). Cyaxares entered into an alliance with Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon; and in conjunction with the Babylonians, he resumed the siege of Nineveh, slew Sarac the king, and levelled that proud metropolis with the ground. Having erected his kingdom into a potent empire, he died, and left the government to his son Astyages.

This prince, who is called in Scripture Ahasuerus, repulsed the Babylonians, who, under the conduct of Evil-Merodach (B. C. 595), had made an inroad into the country. Having married a Jewish maiden of great beauty, he was a friend and protector of the Jews.

(B. C. 560.) On the death of Astyages, the crown devolved on his son, Cyaxares II., who is designated in Holy Writ by the name of Darius the Mede, and was uncle to Cyrus. Cyaxares and his valiant nephew reduced Babylon, and appointed Daniel one of the governors of the subjected kingdom. Cyrus having united under his power the Medes and Persians, Media lost its name, and was incorporated with Persia.

Questions on the History of the Medes.

Who were the Medes? What were the boundaries of the country? What was the nature of the climate and air? And what were the productions?

What was the character of the Medes? Were their laws unalterable? and what was the nature of their religion and laws?

By whom were the Medes subjugated? When did they recover their liberty? What enabled Dejoces to obtain the regal dignity? What were his actions? By whom was he defeated and slain?

By whom was Dejoces succeeded? And what were his character and his actions?

On the death of Phraortes, on whom did the crown of Media devolve? What were his character and conduct? With whom did he enter into an alliance? What was done to Nineveh? To whom did he leave his kingdom?

What is the name of Astyages in Scripture, and what were his actions?

On the death of Astyages, on whom did the crown devolve? By what name is this prince designated in Holy Writ? What did Cyaxares the Second and his nephew Cyrus accomplish? How did Media lose its name, and become incorporated with Persia?

PERSIA.

PERSIA, which is one of the most delightful countries in Asia, has obtained different denominations in different ages. It anciently extended about two thousand eight hundred English miles in length, from the Hellespont to the mouth of the Indus; and about two thousand miles in breadth, from Pontus to the mouth of the Arabian Gulf: being divided into the provinces of Gedrosia, Carmania, Drangiana, Arachosia, Paropamisus, Bactriana, Margiana, Hyrcania, Aria, Parthia, Persis, Susiana, Schirwan, and Curdistan.

The climate of this country varies considerably, according to the situation, some parts being parched with insufferable heat, whilst others are frozen with cold. Some of the valleys, however, are extremely fertile, and produce fruits, flowers, and aromatic herbs, in great exuberance.

In a most beautiful plain, which is said to contain nearly fifteen hundred villages, was situated the magnificent Persepolis, the capital worthy of an empire so rich and powerful. At the foot of a mountain stood the ancient palace of the kings of Persia, of which the walls on three sides still remain. In the solid granite appear certain figures, some of which are emblematical or historical, and others represent battles, hunting matches, and ancient ceremonies, religious and profane.

The Persians are supposed to have descended from Elam, the son of Shem; and, in Scripture, they are sometimes denominated Elamites. Their government has been always monarchical and arbitrary, and their crown hereditary. None were permitted to enter the royal palace without express permission, nor to approach the seat of majesty without prostrating themselves on the ground. The Persian sovereigns frequently heard causes, and were generally very *or with respect to the administration of justice.*

The ancient Persians paid great regard to the education of their children. At the age of five years, the children of reputable parents were intrusted to the care of learned masters, who carefully implanted in their opening minds an aversion to every species of vice, and allured them, rather by example than precept, to the practice of all the moral virtues. Every parent had the power of life over his own children; but the exercise of this prerogative was allowable only for capital offences, or the repetition of great crimes.

Criminals convicted of high treason, were condemned to have their right hand struck off, and then to suffer decapitation. They who had terminated the life of a fellow creature by poison, were pressed to death between two stones. But the most severe punishment exercised in Persia was the inhuman one of fastening the culprit between two boats in such a maner, that, though his head, hands, and feet, were left uncovered, he was unable to move. His face, exposed to the rays of the sun, was smeared with honey, which invited innumerable swarms of flies and wasps to torment him; the worms which bred in his excrements, devoured his entrails; and the executioners, that they might prolong his excruciating agonies, obliged him to take food. The object of the Persian laws was to prevent rather than to punish crimes. They were, perhaps, the only people who enacted a penal law against ingratitude.

Anciently, the Persians were all trained to military exercises, and particularly to the use of the bow. It was disgraceful for the grandees to appear in public, except on horseback. Hence their horses were richly caparisoned; and the Persians sometimes entered the field of battle in splendid chariots, drawn by four, six, or even eight horses. When they designed to make war on any nation, they sent heralds to demand earth and water, and by that means compel the people to acknowledge the Persian monarch as their sovereign.

It is supposed, that the Persians were originally instructed in the knowledge of the true God by their progenitor Elam, and that they were recovered from certain erroneous opinions by the patriarch Abraham. They have ever zealously maintained the unity of God, and though they shewed, and still shew, a great veneration for the fire and the sun, they did not adore either the element or the luminary. They considered the sun as the noblest creature

of the Almighty, and the immediate seat or throne of the Holy One; and the element of fire as the purest symbol of the Divine Nature. The Persians believe in two principles; the one good, the other evil. These two principles occasion good and evil in the world. They say that evil is punished in the other world by two guilty angels, who proportion the sufferings of the damned; that all will be delivered at the day of judgment, which will be at the end of twelve thousand years; and that God employed six seasons in the creation of the world.

The marriages of the Persians are those of children in their minority; of widowers with a second wife; of such as enter into the connubial state by their own choice; of such as are given in marriage by persons who are desirous of leaving them their property; and of the dead, from an opinion that married people are peculiarly happy in a future state. The parties designing to contract the nuptial engagement, declare their consent to the priests, who bless the marriage, and scatter rice over them. The dead are carried to the *tower of silence*, where the bodies are devoured by birds of prey, that they may not pollute the earth or infect the air. Zoroaster persuaded the Persians to build over every altar a pyreum or fire-temple, which was not intended to circumscribe what they esteemed an *image* of the Deity, but only the *symbol* of his purity, or the *shadow* of his nature.

The first king of Elam, mentioned in Scripture, is Chedorlaomer, who conquered many of the Asiatic provinces, and held the kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Bela, Admah, and Zeboim, in subjection for twelve years. He was, however, vanquished by the patriarch Abraham, and lost the sovereignty of the Pentapolis. From this period to the reign of Cyrus, the history of Elam or Persia is clouded with fiction.

(B. C. 599.) Cyrus, who was styled the Great, on account of his extensive conquests and his restoration of the captive Jews, was the son of Cambyzes, a Persian grandee, and of Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of the Medes. He passed the first twelve years of his life in Persia, where he was inured to hardships and such exercises as might capacitate him to bear the fatigues and toils of war. He was then taken to his grandfather Astyages, with whom he lived till he had attained the age of sixteen years, after which he *returned into Persia*. In the fortieth year of his age, he

was called to the assistance of his uncle Cyaxares, who had ascended the throne of Media, and who appointed him generalissimo both of the Medes and Persians. The powerful alliance formed against the Medes (B. C. 557), induced the king of Armenia to withhold his usual tribute. Cyrus, therefore, marched against him, and compelled him to pay his tribute, and to furnish his customary quota of auxiliaries.

The Egyptians, Greeks, Babylonians, Thracians, and other nations of Lesser Asia, having entered into an alliance against Cyaxares, chose Crœsus, king of Lydia, to be their general. The confederates assembled in the vicinage of the river Pactolus, and advanced to Thymbra, whither Cyrus also marched with one hundred and thirty thousand troops, besides three hundred armed chariots several moving towers, and a considerable number of camels, upon which were mounted Arabian archers. The forces of Crœsus, however were twice as numerous as those of Cyrus, and amounted to four hundred thousand men. (B. C. 548.) The battle was extremely bloody, and Cyrus himself was sometimes in imminent danger; but at length the confederates gave way on all sides. After this engagement, Cyrus took Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and made Crœsus prisoner, whom he replaced on the throne. After subduing Syria and Arabia, he marched against Babylon, which he reduced after a siege of two years, and put an end to the Babylonian empire.

(B. C. 534.) About two years after the reduction of Babylon, Cyaxares died, and left the whole government of the empire to Cyrus, who at this time published the famous decree by which the Jews were permitted to return to their native country, and restored all the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem. This prince, who was greatly beloved by all the nations that acknowledged his dominion, died in the seventieth year of his age. Cyrus was the founder of the Persian empire, which included India, Assyria, Media, Persia, and the parts adjoining to the Euxine and Caspian Seas; and he established this empire with such consummate wisdom, that on the strength of his foundation it stood above two hundred years, notwithstanding the impolitic measures of his successors.

Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses, who, soon after his accession to the throne, resolved to undertake an expedition against Egypt, and in that kingdom committed great cruelties and devastations. After the termination of

the Egyptian war, he projected an expedition against Ethiopia, and sent thither spies, who, under the specious character of ambassadors, might procure information relative to the strength and political situation of the country. The king of Ethiopia, who had received intelligence of the object of their mission, said to them, "If your sovereign were an honest man, he would neither desire more than his own, nor attempt to enslave a people who have never injured him. However, give him this bow, and tell him, that I advise him to make war on the Ethiopians when the Persians shall be able thus easily to bend so strong a bow; and, in the mean time, let him thank the gods that they have never inspired the Ethiopians with the desire of extending the limits of their empire." Cambyzes no sooner received this magnanimous message (B. C. 524), than he commanded his army to begin their march for Ethiopia, though they were unprovided with any necessaries for such an expedition. But the king quickly found his troops in want of provisions, water, and every thing requisite; and the soldiers, after eating their beasts of burden, were obliged to choose one man by lot out of ten, to serve for food to his companions. At length, after having sacrificed the flower of his army to this preposterous undertaking, he was obliged to retreat to Thebes in Egypt. He had also sent against the Ammonians another detachment, which, though it arrived at the city of Oasis, was never heard of afterwards.

Irritated by misfortune, Cambyzes committed horrid cruelties in Egypt, and killed the god Apis. He became jealous of his brother Smerdis, whom, he caused to be assassinated by his principal favourite Prexaspes. He married his sister Meroe, whose charms had excited his passion, but whom, on her lamenting the hard destiny of her brother Smerdis, he struck with his foot in so brutal a manner as to occasion her death. He shot an arrow through the heart of the son of Prexaspes, to prove, as he said, that wine did not take from him the use of his faculties. (B. C. 523.) He ordered Croesus, king of Lydia, to be executed. Those, however, who received the order, ventured to conceal the devoted prince, on the supposition that Cambyzes might repent of his ill-timed severity; but, though Cambyzes was glad the next day to find Croesus still alive, he commanded those who had disobeyed his order to be put to death. Cambyzes was returning into Persia, to quell a *revolt which had been occasioned by Smerdis, one of the*

magi, who pretended to be the brother of the king, when he accidentally received a wound from his sword, of which he died at Ecbatana in Syria.

The counterfeit Smerdis was injured by his excessive precautions. Cyrus having formerly caused the ears of the magi to be cut off (B. C. 522), this mutilation occasioned a discovery; and a conspiracy of seven of the principal Persian grandees being formed against Smerdis, he was assassinated. When the public tumults had subsided, the conspirators held a council on the kind of government which should be established, and after some debate, they determined in favour of monarchy. They agreed, therefore, to meet next morning on horseback, at an appointed place near the city, and to acknowledge him, whose horse first neighed, as king of Persia. This plan was reduced to execution; and Darius, the son of Hystaspes, by a stratagem of his groom, obtained the sovereignty.

In the commencement of his reign, Darius put to death Intaphernes, one of the conspirators. This nobleman attempted to enter the palace at an unseasonable hour, and on his being refused admittance, cut off the noses and ears of a door-keeper and a messenger. Darius caused Intaphernes to be seized, and at the same time secured his family, lest they should foment a rebellion. During their confinement, the wife of Intaphernes made great lamentations at the gates of the palace, and the king, compassionating her distress, allowed her to liberate any one of her relations. She made choice of her brother, saying "a second marriage may give me another husband, and other children, but my father and mother being dead, I cannot have another brother." Darius also granted the life of her son, and put the rest to death.

Darius had scarcely entered the fifth year of his reign, when he was compelled to lead all his forces against Babylon, which had revolted, and made great preparations for sustaining a regular siege. To prevent the consumption of their provisions, the Babylonians collected all their old men, women, and children, and strangled them without distinction, only reserving one wife for each man, and a female servant to attend the business of the house. After Babylon had been besieged a year and eight months, it was taken by the contrivance of Zopyrus, who cut off his own nose and ears, and pretending that he was thus mangled by the Persian monarch for advising him to re-

linquish his undertaking, was admitted into the city by the inhabitants.

(B. C. 514.) Having settled the affairs of Babylon, Darius undertook an expedition against the Scythians, on pretence of revenging the calamities which that people had brought upon Asia, about one hundred and twenty years before. By means of a bridge of boats, he transported his army across the Bosphorus, and subdued Thrace; and having appointed his fleet to join him at the Ister, or Danube, he also passed over that river into Scythia. The Scythians avoided an engagement, and retired before him, laying waste the country, and filling up all the wells and springs, till the Persian troops were quite exhausted with tedious and fatiguing marches. At last, Darius resolved to abandon this wild enterprise, and causing a great number of fires to be lighted, he left the old men and invalids in the camp, and marched with all expedition to regain the pass of the river. The king re-crossed the Danube, and returned into Thrace, where he left Megabyzus, one of his generals, to complete the conquests of that country, and repassing the Bosphorus, took up his quarters at Sardis.

Darius appointed his brother Artaphernes to the government of Sardis; and a sedition happening soon after in Naxos, the chief island of the Cyclades, in the Ægean Sea, the Persian satrap endeavoured to turn this to the advantage of the king, and to open a free passage into Greece. The attempt of subjecting Naxos, however, not only proved abortive, but the Ionians openly revolted from Darius, and made preparations for carrying on the war both by sea and land. (B. C. 500.) Having received a reinforcement of twenty ships from Athens, the Ionians assembled all their troops, sailed for Ephesus, where they left their vessels, and marching to the city of Sardis, reduced it to ashes. The Persians, however overtook them in their retreat, and defeated them with great slaughter. The Athenians returned home, and would not again take any part in this war; but their having engaged thus far, gave rise to that contest between the two nations, which finally terminated in the destruction of the Persian empire.

Darius having reduced to subjection the Ionians and all the islands on the Asiatic coasts, appointed Mardonius to the command of his forces, and ordered him to invade Greece, and take ample vengeance on the Athenians and

Eretrians, for the destruction of Sardis. Accordingly, that nobleman assembled his troops at the Hellespont, and marched through Thrace into Macedonia, which voluntarily submitted. But the fleet, in doubling Mount Athos, was dispersed and nearly destroyed by a tremendous storm; and the land army was suddenly attacked by the Bryges, a people of Thrace, who slaughtered a great number of the Persians. These unfortunate events obliged Mardonius to return into Asia.

(B. C. 494.) Darius ascribing the ill success of this expedition to the inexperience of Mardonius, recalled him, and appointed two other generals in his room, Datis, a Mede, and Artaphernes, son of the late governor of Sardis. But before he ordered another attempt to be made against Greece, he sent heralds, who demanded of the Grecian states earth and water, in token of submission. Finding from the treatment which the heralds had experienced at Athens and Sparta (B. C. 490), that the Greeks would not easily submit, he commanded Datis and Artaphernes to set sail with a fleet of six hundred ships, and five hundred thousand men, to plunder the cities of Eretria and Athens, to reduce all the houses and temples to ashes, and to send the inhabitants in chains to Susa.

The Persian generals having taken Naxos and Eretria, sailed to Attica, and were conducted by Hippias, the son of Pisistratus, to the plains of Marathon. The Lacedæmonians were unable to act against the common enemy for some days, on account of a superstitious custom, which would not allow them to begin a march before the full moon. The inhabitants of Platea furnished one thousand, and the Athenians nine thousand men; and this small force marched to the plains of Marathon to give battle to the Persians. Miltiades having assumed the command of the Grecian troops, gave the signal for engaging, and animated the Athenians so successfully by his words and example, that they attacked the Persians with irresistible fury, and, after a sanguinary conflict, chased them to their fleet, and burnt several of their vessels. The conquerors found among the baggage, marbles which the Persians had brought to erect a monument of their victory, and chains intended to bind the vanquished.

When Darius was informed of the unsuccessful return of his forces, he resolved to invade Greece in person, at the head of a still more powerful army; but after spending

three years in making preparations for this expedition, he sickened and died. This prince is honourably mentioned in Scripture as a favourer of the Israelites, as a restorer of God's temple, and a promoter of the holy worship at Jerusalem. He was endowed with many excellent qualities; and the ancients commend him for his wisdom, justice, and clemency.

Darius having declared his son Xerxes, who was born after his father's exaltation to the throne, his successor in the kingdom, this prince continued the preparations against Greece. (B. C. 485.) He entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, who were to attack the Greek colonies in Sicily and Italy, and who raised an army of three hundred thousand men in Spain, Gaul, Italy, and Africa. To prevent a repetition of the former disaster which befel the Persian fleet, Xerxes commanded a passage for his galleys to be cut through mount Athos. He also ordered a bridge of boats to be laid across the Hellespont, for the passage of his troops into Europe.

(B. C. 480.) Having made the necessary preparations, the Persian monarch began his march against Greece with a land army of one million eight hundred thousand men. His fleet consisted of twelve hundred and seven large ships, and three thousand galleys and transports, which contained five hundred and seventeen thousand six hundred and ten men; so that the whole body of forces amounted to two millions three hundred and seventeen thousand six hundred and ten. This number was so much increased on the march by such nations as made their submissions, that Xerxes arrived at Thermopylæ with two millions six hundred and forty-one thousand six hundred and ten men, besides servants, eunuchs, women, &c.

In the mean time, the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, finding themselves abandoned by all their countrymen, except the Thespians and the Plateans, resolved to terminate all intestine discords, and nominated Themistocles general of the Athenian, and Leonidas of the Spartan forces. After various proposals, it was at length determined, that Leonidas, at the head of four thousand men, should hasten to defend the straits of Thermopylæ, a narrow pass between the mountains that divide Thessaly from Greece, and the only way through which the Persians could advance by land into Attica. Accordingly, Leonidas marched thither with *all possible expedition*, positively determined to stop the pro-

gress of the invaders, or to perish in the attempt. Xerxes endeavoured to corrupt him; but finding his offers rejected, he sent a herald to demand his arms. Leonidas, in a laconic style, answered, "Come thyself, and take them." These warriors, whose number was so small, resisted the attack of the whole Persian army, till at length they were buried beneath the darts, arrows, and other missile weapons of their multitudinous assailants.

News being brought to Athens of the enemy's approach, Themistocles persuaded the Athenians to send their wives and children to places of security; to abandon their city to the Persians; and to embark on board a fleet, which might possibly yet arrest the victories of an insulting foe. Some, however, who literally interpreted the oracle, that "Athens should be saved by wooden walls," attempted to fortify the city with boards and palisadoes, but perceived their mistake when it was too late.

In the mean time, the Grecian fleet was victorious over that of Persia in some partial engagements, and afterwards completely at the battle of Salamis, in which the dispersion was so general, and the defeat so decisive, that Xerxes, afraid of not being able to preserve a single vessel to carry him from Europe, made an expeditious retreat, and was conveyed into Asia in a small boat. This success inspired the other Greeks with new courage; and they joined the Athenians and Lacedæmonians in harassing the Persians on all sides. The land army ventured a decisive battle at Platea in Boeotia (B. C. 479), where, out of three hundred thousand, only three thousand Persians escaped. On the same day, the remainder of the Persian fleet was destroyed at Mycale, a promontory in Asia. Money and intrigue, however, still preserved the Persians an influence in Greece, and for a long time assisted the efforts of their arms.

Xerxes, while he resided at Sardis, having conceived a violent passion for the wife of his brother Masistes, exerted all his arts to obtain the accomplishment of his impure designs, and married his eldest son to her daughter Artaynta; but the object of his affection was a woman of exemplary virtue, and tenderly attached to her husband, and his projects being rendered abortive, he transferred his inclinations to Artaynta, who did not follow the glorious example of her mother's firmness.

Hamestris, the wife of Xerxes, supposing that the cot-

pliance of the niece was owing to the consent of her sister-in-law, demanded the wife of Masistes on the birth-day of her consort, when the queen was indulged with any particular gratification. Accordingly, this virtuous princess was delivered into the hands of Hamestris, who caused her breasts, lips, tongue, nose, and ears, to be cut off, and in that deplorable condition sent her home to her husband.

Masistes, exasperated at this unparalleled outrage, instantly collected all his family, and set out for the province of Bactria, of which he was governor; but the king, hearing of his sudden departure, sent after him a body of cavalry, who cut him in pieces, with his wife, his children, and all his retinue. The dissolute conduct of Xerxes rendered him obnoxious to his subjects; and he was murdered by his chief favourite Artabanus, who persuaded Artaxerxes, the king's third son, that Darius his eldest brother, had been guilty of the crime of parricide. Artaxerxes, therefore, killed Darius, and finding that Artabanus entertained a design against him, he ordered him to be put to death.

(B. C. 465.) The new monarch having thus removed one formidable competitor, endeavoured to secure his crown against the attempts of his brother Hystaspes, who held the government of Bactria. Artaxerxes attacked and defeated the adherents of Artabanus. He then sent an army into Bactria, which had declared in favour of Hystaspes; and though victory was doubtful in the first battle, Artaxerxes was successful in the second, and firmly established himself in the empire.

(B. C. 460.) In the fifth year of this reign, the Egyptians made a violent struggle for their liberty, but their exertions proved ineffectual. Artaxerxes, however, concluded a peace with the Greeks, by which it was agreed, that no Persian ship of war should be permitted to sail between the Cyanean and Chelidonian islands, and that no Persian general should advance within three days' march of the Grecian seas.

Megabyzus, a Persian nobleman, who was indignant that the mother of the king should persuade Artaxerxes to crucify Inarus, king of Egypt, to whom he had promised pardon, raised the standard of rebellion. The difference, however, was adjusted to the satisfaction of all parties, and Megabyzus enjoyed at the Persian court his former dignities. Artaxerxes died in peace (B. C. 424), and left *the succession to Xerxes, the only son he had by his*

queen, though by his concubines he had seventeen, among whom were Sogdianus, Ochus, and Arsites.

Xerxes II. had assumed the diadem only forty-five days, when being inebriated at a public entertainment, Sogdianus seized an opportunity to assassinate him. The regicide was scarcely seated on the throne, when Ochus having declared his intention of revenging the murder of Xerxes, Sogdianus was deserted by all his subjects, and finally doomed to expiate his crimes by a cruel death.

Ochus, being now invested with supreme authority, assumed the name of Darius, and is mentioned by historians under the appellation of Darius Nothus, or Darius the Bastard. His brother Arsites endeavoured to supplant him in the empire, by the assistance of Astyphius, the son of Megabyzus: but after hazarding three battles, Astyphius surrendered himself to the king; and Arsites, hearing that his colleague was treated with great clemency, followed his example; upon which both the rebels were thrown into burning ashes.

(B. C. 407.) About this time the Egyptians shook off the Persian yoke; and the Medes also revolted. Darius, having settled the affairs of the rebellious provinces, bestowed the supreme command of Asia Minor on his youngest son Cyrus, who was ordered to assist the Lacedæmonians against the Athenians. This order, however, soon exposed the weakness of the king's politics; for the Lacedæmonians, after conquering the Athenians, invaded the Persian provinces in Asia. Darius, being informed that Cyrus had sentenced two noble Persians to death, merely because they had not wrapped up their hands in their sleeves, as was customary in the presence of a Persian monarch, recalled him to court. The queen, however, who was very partial to Cyrus, and who possessed an absolute sway over her royal consort, effected a complete reconciliation, and prevailed on the king to bequeath to her favourite son those provinces which he had recently appointed him to govern.

(B. C. 404.) Soon after this, Darius died, and left the imperial diadem to his son Arsaces, who assumed the name of Artaxerxes, and who received the appellation of Mnemon, on account of his extraordinary memory. Cyrus resolved to exert all his abilities to drive his brother from the throne, and having procured a number of Grecian auxiliaries, marched his troops to the plains of Cunaxa,

in the province of Babylon, where he found Artaxerxes, at the head of nine hundred thousand men, ready for battle. A sanguinary contest immediately commenced; and Cyrus, on seeing his brother, engaged him with such fury as seemed to change the battle into a single combat. The rebellious prince, however, fell by the hands of the king and his guards. The ten thousand Greeks, under the conduct of Xenophon, effected that memorable retreat, which has always been considered as a noble achievement among military operations.

Parysatis, queen of the late monarch, having conceived an implacable hatred against Statira, the consort of Artaxerxes, contrived to poison her, by dividing a bird between them with a knife which was poisoned on one side. Parysatis was confined some time to Babylon, but was afterwards permitted to return to court.

Artaxerxes was engaged in war with Egypt; but he was neither active nor fortunate. He waged continual war with the Greeks, who, ever disagreeing among themselves, were incapable of pursuing a fixed plan of operations. On the other hand, the Persian generals, in consequence of uniform instructions, procured many advantages. At length, the Lacedæmonians finding themselves unable to maintain the war, sent Antalcidas to conclude a peace with the governor of Sardis, on the best terms he could obtain. Athens and the other cities of Greece also sent their deputies, and a treaty was concluded, by which Antalcidas basely surrendered to the Persians all the Greek cities in Asia.

Artaxerxes, being freed from the Grecian war, turned his arms against Evagoras, king of Cyprus, whom he compelled to cede all the cities of Cyprus, except Salamine, which he was allowed to hold as a tributary monarch under the king of Persia. He then resolved on an expedition against the Cadusians (B. C. 384), a warlike people, who inhabited a mountainous tract between the Euxine and Caspian seas. The king headed this expedition in person; and the Persians were rescued from impending ruin by a stratagem of Tiribazus, a Persian nobleman.

Artaxerxes, deeming it advisable to silence the contentions of his children* respecting the succession, per-

* *Artaxerxes had a hundred and fifteen sons by his concubines, and three by his queen, viz. Darius, Anaspes, and Ochus.*

mitted Darius, his eldest son, to assume the regal title and wear the tiara even during his life; but these honours not satisfying the ambition of the young prince, he entered into a conspiracy with Tiribazus* to murder his father. His ingratitude, however, was timely discovered, and received the just reward.

On the death of Darius, three of the princes, viz. Ariaspes, Ochus, and Arsames, became competitors for the crown. Ochus practised so effectually on the credulity of Ariaspes, that he poisoned himself; and Arsames was assassinated by the son of Tiribazus. These acts of cruelty overwhelmed Artaxerxes with such insupportable grief that he died.

(B. C. 359.) Conscious that his father's justice and clemency were venerated throughout the whole empire, and apprehensive of the ill consequences which might result from an immediate avowal of his accession, Ochus concealed the death of the king, and assumed the administration of government in the name of Artaxerxes. He caused himself, in the name of the king, to be declared his successor; and after ten months, he published the death of Artaxerxes. An insurrection in several of the provinces immediately followed; but the leaders of the confederacy disagreeing among themselves, the rebellion terminated without any effusion of blood. Ochus no sooner possessed absolute authority, than he began to fill his capital and the whole empire with carnage and misery. He caused Ocha, his own sister and mother-in-law, to be buried alive; shut up one of his uncles, with a hundred of his sons and grandsons, in a court of the palace, where they were massacred by a body of archers; and put all the branches of the royal family to death, without regard to sex, age, or proximity of blood. He exercised similar barbarities on all who afforded him the slightest pretence of anger, and shed the noblest blood of Persia.

This insupportable tyranny occasioned another rebellion, which was not quelled without much difficulty. This revolt was scarcely terminated, when the Sidonians and other natives of Phœnicia joined the Cypriots and Egyptians in a confederacy against Persia. Ochus effected the reduction of Sidon, and compelled all the other cities to make submissions. He also reduced the city of Jericho; and

* Tiribazus had been twice disappointed of a princess whom Artaxerxes had promised him in marriage, and on that account entered into the confederacy.

having concluded a peace with the kings of Cyprus, he led his victorious troops into Egypt, which he completely subdued.

Ochus having reduced all the revolted provinces, abandoned himself to the gratification of his depraved appetites, and passed his time amidst every species of luxury and voluptuousness. Bagoas, an Egyptian eunuch, to whom was committed the administration of affairs (B. C. 338), and who was indignant on account of the insult offered to his religion at the subjugation of his country*, prevailed on the king's physician to administer a strong poison, instead of medicine, to his royal benefactor. Having thus accomplished his purpose, he caused the flesh of the king to be cut in pieces, and thrown to dogs and cats. He then placed on the throne Arses, the youngest prince, and condemned all the rest to death. But Arses, sensible of the slavery in which he was held, concerted measures to free himself from it. Bagoas, therefore, effected his destruction in the second year of his reign (B. C. 336), and bestowed the imperial diadem on Darius Codomannus, who was a descendant of Darius Nothus, and at that time governor of Armenia. This prince, however, had not long enjoyed the sovereignty, when the ambitious eunuch determined to remove him, and with this design provided a deleterious potion; but Darius, being apprised of his danger, compelled Bagoas to drink the poison, and thus established himself on the throne.

In the second year of this reign, Alexander, king of Macedon, crossed the Hellespont at the head of a well-disciplined army, with the design of revenging the injuries which Greece had received from the Persians during three hundred years. On his arrival at the Granicus, he found on the opposite bank a numerous Persian army, amounting to one hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand horse. Though Alexander had not more than thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse, yet he crossed the Granicus at the head of his cavalry, and attacked with impetuosity the whole Persian force. An obstinate conflict ensued, in which the Persians were defeated with the loss of twenty thousand foot and two thousand horse, and in which Alexander exposed his life to the most imminent danger.

* Ochus, in opposition to every remonstrance, had pillaged all the Egyptian temples, and killed the sacred bull Apis.

Spithrobates, the intended son-in-law of **Darius**, having hurled his javelin without effect against the Macedonian conqueror, attacked him with his sword; but **Alexander**, at the moment he raised his arm to strike with his sabre, pierced him with his lance. The king of Macedon was then attacked by **Rosaces**, brother to **Spithrobates**, who beat off the warrior's plume with his battle-axe; but he was saved by **Clitus**, who struck off the head of **Rosaces** with a scimitar. Having thus obtained a decisive victory, **Alexander** received embassies from several cities, which acknowledged his authority.

The invasion having assumed a serious aspect, **Darius** began his march against the conqueror at the head of a numerous army, before which was carried, on silver altars, the sacred fire, attended by the magi and three hundred and sixty-five youths in scarlet robes. Next followed a sumptuous car consecrated to **Jupiter**; ten magnificent chariots with curious sculptures in gold and silver; the Immortal Band of Persians clothed in robes of gold tissue; the king's relations habited in the richest ornaments; and **Darius**, who was seated upon a golden chariot, and whose dress was adorned with a profusion of costly jewels.

(B. C. 333.) **Darius** led his army into Cilicia, and advanced to the city of **Issus**, near which **Alexander** drew up his troops on an advantageous ground. The Persian monarch, unable to extend his front beyond that of the enemy, drew up his army in several lines one behind the other. But the Macedonians having broken the first line, a scene of confusion immediately followed, and the Persians were completely defeated. **Darius** retreated precipitately to the adjoining mountains, where he mounted a horse, and continued his flight. In the mean time, the Greek troops in the pay of the Persian monarch performed prodigies of valour, and withstood the furious attack of the Macedonian army till twelve thousand of them were slain. **Alexander** was now entire master of the field, and of the Persian camp, in which the mother, wife, and son of **Darius**, were taken prisoners. After this battle, fortune constantly favoured the Macedonian king. He humbled the pride of the Scythians; made his offerings in the temple of the Jews; received the submission of Egypt; and penetrating through the deserts of the Oasis, was declared a god by the oracle of **Jupiter Ammon**.

In the mean time, **Darius**, being overcome by the kind

and tender behaviour of Alexander towards his wife, his mother, and his son, offered to relinquish all the Asiatic provinces as far as the Halys, and all the countries between the Hellespont and the Euphrates, and tendered thirty thousand talents for the ransom of his family. But these proposals were rejected, and Darius was required to descend from his throne, and to acknowledge the king of Macedon as his sovereign.

The Persian monarch, therefore, having assembled a more numerous army than that which fought at Issus, prepared for battle in a large plain near the city of Arbela, on the confines of Persia. (B. C. 331.) The Persians commenced the attack with great fury and resolution; but, after an obstinate conflict, they were totally routed, and Darius was again compelled to seek safety in flight. After crossing the Lycus, his attendants advised him to break down the bridge, in order to stop the progress of his pursuers. Darius, however, reflecting that many of his unfortunate troops were hastening to pass the same bridge, refused to comply with this advice. "I would rather," said he, "leave an open way to a pursuing enemy, than shut it against a fleeing friend." After reaching the city of Arbela, he passed the mountains of Armenia.

Alexander, having allowed his men to recruit their strength and spirits, after the fatigue of the recent battle, marched first to Babylon, and afterwards to Susa. He then appeared before Persepolis, the ancient residence of the Persian monarchs, and inflamed the resentment of his troops against the fated capital. Accordingly, the most wanton cruelties were exercised on the unfortunate inhabitants; treasures of every description were accounted lawful plunder; the streets were deluged with human blood; and the royal palace was wantonly set on fire, at the instigation of an abandoned courtesan.

(B. C. 330.) Darius, who had sought an asylum at Ecbatana, in Media, had collected another army, with which he intended to make a last effort. He was, however, prevented by Bessus, governor of Bactria, and Nabarzanes, a Persian nobleman, who entered into a conspiracy against him. The conspirators seized the person of the king, and binding him with golden chains, shut him up in a covered cart, and retreated precipitately towards Bactria. They intended, if Alexander pursued them, to deliver up the *object of his resentment*, or if they escaped the Macedonian

conqueror, to murder Darius, and usurping the imperial diadem, to renew the war. When Alexander was informed of the base designs of Bessus and Nabarzanes, he left the main body of his army under the care of Craterus, and advanced with a small body of light armed cavalry; and receiving intelligence that the Persian king was conveyed in a covered cart, and that the troops had acknowledged Bessus as their general, he hastened his march. As soon as the king of Macedon came within sight of the enemy, they immediately took to flight, and having discharged their darts at the unfortunate Persian monarch, left him weltering in his blood.

Thus died Darius in the fiftieth year of his age, and the sixth of his reign, and with him ended the Persian empire, after it had existed two hundred and six years. His temper was mild and pacific; his government peculiarly equitable; and his character unsullied by any of those vices, to which most of his predecessors had been addicted.

On the death of their unfortunate prince, the Persian commanders submitted to the conqueror, and were reinstated in their former dignities and employments. Nabarzanes procured a pardon. But the iniquitous Bessus, having assumed the regal title, was stripped of the diadem and royal robes; his nose and ears were publicly cut off; and he was sacrificed to the manes of Darius by Oxathres, the brother of that unfortunate monarch. Thus Alexander saw himself firmly established in possession of the Persian empire.

After the Persians had been subject to the Parthians for the space of four hundred and seventy five years, Artaxares, a Persian of mean descent and spurious birth, excited a revolt among his countrymen; and the reigning monarch being dethroned and put to death, the Persian empire was restored. Artaxares immediately ascended the throne, assumed the pompous title of king of kings, and asserted his right to all the provinces of the ancient empire, which were now under the authority of Roman governors. He sent to Rome ambassadors (A. D. 230), who being admitted to an audience of the emperor, addressed him as follows: "The great king, Artaxares, commands the Romans and their sovereign to evacuate Syria and all Asia Minor, and to restore to the Persians all the countries on this side of the Ægean and Pontic seas, which they claim in right of lawful inheritance." This insolent demand roused the indignation of the emperor Alexander Severus, who attacked and defeated Artaxares, and wrested from him several of

his provinces. Artaxares, however, recovered these provinces, and, after swaying the sceptre with great reputation for the space of twelve years, died in peace.

(A. D. 242.) He was succeeded by his son Saporess, who was equally famous for his personal strength and mental abilities, but who was of a fierce, cruel, and untractable disposition. His dominions were invaded by the emperor Gordian, the Younger. He was afterwards attacked by the emperor Valerian, whom he took prisoner; and having treated him with unparalleled indignity, he sentenced him to a most cruel death. Saporess contrived to augment his dominions at the expense of his barbarous neighbours, and left the kingdom to his son Hormisdas.

(A. D. 273.) This prince was of a pacific disposition, and, refusing to interfere in the affairs of the Romans, died in peace, after a reign of one year and ten days. His son, Varanes I., enjoyed the regal dignity three years, without being disturbed by the Romans, or attempting to extend the limits of his empire.

(A. D. 277.) Varanes II. meditated an invasion of the Roman provinces; but on the approach of the emperor Probus, he abandoned his design, and sued for peace. He attempted, however, to invade the neighbouring provinces, in the reign of Dioclesian; but that emperor marched an army into Armenia, and terrified him from the execution of his project.

(A. D. 294.) Varanes III. was denominated Segansaa, or king of the Segans, and his reign is passed over in silence. He was succeeded by Narses, a prince of great abilities and resolution. Narses reduced several places of importance in Mesopotamia; but his progress was checked by Galerius, who defeated him in two engagements, and followed him to the centre of his own kingdom. The Persian, however, had the address to retrieve his credit by a successful attack, and effectually revenged his recent losses; but Galerius, obtaining the command of another army, hastened to expiate his disgrace, and completely defeated Narses, who was obliged to conclude a dishonourable peace. He died in the seventh year of his reign, and was succeeded by Misdates, whose actions were not sufficiently interesting to claim the attention of posterity.

(A. D. 308.) Saporess II. was a zealous assertor of the dignity of the Persian crown, and endeavoured to unite all the provinces of the ancient empire under his authority.

At the instigation of the magi, he commenced a violent persecution against the Christians. He formed a scheme for the elevation of himself and his successors to the supreme dominion of the East, and the disorders which took place in the Roman empire, gave him an opportunity of re-annexing to his own dominions those provinces which had been wrested from his predecessors.

Julian had no sooner obtained possession of the Roman empire, than he determined to crush the power of Persia. He, therefore, marched into the dominions of Saporess; but being obliged to raise the siege of Ctesiphon, he determined to remove to the Tigris, on which he had a fleet of transports laden with provisions. At this juncture, he was joined by a Persian nobleman, who advised him to burn his fleet, and march through an open road, into which he would conduct him. Julian imprudently followed the advice, and thus led his forces into the most imminent danger. His troops were soon surrounded by the whole Persian army, and having struggled for some time with the intense heat, want of provision, and scarcity of water, they were suddenly attacked by the greater part of the Persian cavalry, who fought with great resolution, and continued the combat till Julian was mortally wounded. Saporess improved the opportunity, and obtained an advantageous peace of the new emperor.

(A. D. 380.) This restless and ambitious monarch was succeeded by a prince called Artaxerxes, who lived in amity with the Romans, and enjoyed the regal dignity for the space of four years. Varanes IV. succeeded his father Saporess, and governed his dominions quietly for eleven years.

(A. D. 401.) Isdigertes was deservedly celebrated for his virtuous disposition, and, at the death of the emperor Arcadius, was entrusted with the care of his son Theodosius II., and the Roman empire. The zeal and attention which Isdigertes evinced on behalf of his royal pupil, laid the foundation of a friendship between the two empires, and delivered the Christian subjects in Persia from many inconveniences.

(A. D. 421.) He was succeeded by his son Varanes V. In his reign, the indiscreet zeal of a Christian, who set fire to a Persian temple, renewed the war with the Romans. The Persian monarch obtained the assistance of the Saracens, and, notwithstanding the defeats which he

experienced from the Romans, he rendered even victory disadvantageous to the enemy. The Christians having performed some disinterested acts of benevolence and charity, Varanes granted them many important favours. He enjoyed an uninterrupted peace during the remainder of his life, and died in the full possession of his people's love.

(A. D. 442.) Varanes VI. was next invested with the diadem, which he wore for seventeen years and four months. His son and successor, Peroses, was of a restless and turbulent disposition. Being incensed against the Euthalites or White Huns he marched an army into their country; but the Euthalites cutting off his retreat, obliged him to swear that he would never more invade them. Peroses, however, assembled his forces, and marched a second time towards the northern frontiers; but the Euthalites rushing unexpectedly upon him, slew and took captive most of his army, and put him to death.

The nobles bestowed the crown on his brother Valens, who was a prince of a virtuous and compassionate disposition, and who, at the expiration of four years, fell a victim to the oppressive cares of government. He was succeeded by Cavades (A. D. 486), the son of Peroses, who, having obliged the Euthalites to acknowledge him as their sovereign, undertook to alter the constitution of his own kingdom, and issued an edict, which gave so much offence to the nobles, that they deposed him, and bestowed the diadem on Zambades, a near relative of Peroses. The new king was equally just and compassionate, zealous for the rights of the crown, and solicitous for the welfare of his subjects; but Cavades making his escape out of prison, repossessed himself of the throne, and after putting out the eyes of Zambades, threw him into close confinement.

Cavades being pressed for the payment of a certain loan, which he had received from the Euthalites, requested the emperor Anastasius to advance the money on interest; but this being refused, the Persian monarch made a sudden irruption into Armenia, laid the inhabitants under heavy contributions, and reduced the important fortress of Amida. The Huns, however, having invaded his territories, he was obliged to march against them, and left the Romans to improve his absence.

(A. D. 531.) On the death of Cavades, his son Chosroes ascended the throne, in conformity with the will of his

father. This prince readily agreed to the offered pacification of the Romans; and a peace was accordingly concluded. The Persian nobility, perceiving that Chosroes possessed a restless and turbulent disposition, endeavoured to transfer the sceptre into the hands of a more tractable prince; but the king, being apprised of his danger, caused all the conspirators to be put to death.

Chosroes, receiving from the king of the Goths a message, relative to the augmentation of Justinian's power, commenced fresh hostilities against the Romans, and reduced the city of Antioch, and several other important places. Whilst the sword of the Persian monarch was bathed in the blood of his enemies, and his coffers were abundantly replenished with the spoils of conquered cities, Belisarius, the Roman general, led a numerous army into the Persian territories, and ravaged a few inconsiderable places. Chosroes drew the Roman ambassadors into an insidious treaty, which was more destructive to their master than open war. The Persian monarch, however, was almost constantly engaged in hostilities with the Eastern empire; but the Romans having given him a complete defeat, he was so deeply affected with his ill success, that he sickened and died.

(A. D. 579.) He was succeeded by his son Hormisdas, who being of a cruel and obstinate disposition, was ill able to sooth the public troubles, or heal the wounds of the empire. His ridiculous curiosity relative to future events, his haughty and forbidding carriage, and his impolitic mode of conduct towards foreign princes, were prominent traits in his character. Believing in the assertions of some old diviners, he regarded the generality of his subjects as a rebellious race. His contumelious treatment of the Roman ambassadors occasioned a new war, which terminated to the disadvantage of both parties.

Varamus, a Persian general, being defeated in an engagement with the enemy, Hormisdas sent him a woman's garment, and threatened the vanquished troops with decimation. This insult roused the resentment of the army, and inspired their leader with the thought of effecting a revolution. The popular tumults soon increased, and Hormisdas was dethroned by a person of the royal blood, named Bindoes, who had been loaded with chains for a slight offence. The unfortunate monarch being heard in his own defence, recommended his younger son Hormisdas

as his successor, in preference to his elder son Chosroes. The assembly, however, at the instigation of Bindoes, caused his son Hormisdas, and the prince's mother, to be cut in pieces; and ordered the eyes of the deposed monarch to be put out with a hot iron.

(A. D. 592.) Chosroes II. ascended the throne, and on his unhappy father reproaching him with baseness and cruelty, he caused him to be beaten with cudgels till he died. But whilst the king was taking measures for the aggrandizement of his power, Varamus advanced at the head of his troops, and effected a counter-revolution, and Chosroes was compelled to abandon his palace, and seek safety in a precipitate flight. Varamus took possession of Ctesiphon, and affected the greatest humanity, beneficence, and condescension; but, on his assuming the royal ornaments at a solemn festival, the sparks of discontent were blown into an open flame, and the nobles, pursuant to the advice of Bindoes, attacked the palace in the dead of the night. Varamus and his attendants, however, slew most of the assailants, except Bindoes and a few others, who fled towards Media, for the purpose of raising forces for the dethroned monarch.

Chosroes obtaining the assistance of the Romans, defeated the army of Varamus, and repossessed himself of the crown. When he found himself firmly established in the supreme dignity, he laid aside all the foreign customs, which he had adopted to ingratiate himself with the Romans, and assumed the state and behaviour of a Persian monarch. On the death of the emperor Mauritius, Chosroes took up arms against the Romans. Such was his success, that, in nine years (A. D. 605), he plundered the provinces of Syria, Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Armenia, Cappadocia, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and all the country as far as Chalcedon. He also ravaged Judea; pillaged the city of Jerusalem; and sold ninety thousand Christians to the Jews, who put them all to death. These extraordinary conquests inducing him to make an expedition into Egypt, he reduced Alexandria and all the country toward Libya, and added the empire of Africa to that of Asia.

The emperor Heraclius, afflicted by the sight of these horrid cruelties which marked the progress of the Persians, sent ambassadors to offer peace on any terms that were *not absolutely* dishonourable; but the haughty conqueror, *elated with his acquisitions*, dismissed them with the follow-

ing message: "Tell your master, that I will not accede to any terms of accommodation, till he and his subjects shall consent to renounce their crucified God, and worship the sun, the great god of the Persians." Indignant at this answer, Heraclius marched at the head of a formidable army against the self-sufficient monarch, who was defeated in several pitched battles, and finally murdered in a dungeon by command of his own son.

(A. D. 626.) Siroes, having ascended the throne of Persia, concluded a treaty of perpetual peace with Heraclius; but he was murdered by one of his generals, after he had worn the crown about twelve months. His son, Ardeser, was next invested with the government, but was assassinated in the seventh month of his reign by Sarbas, commander-in-chief of the Persian forces, who seized the diadem for himself.—(A. D. 630.) A civil war, however, crushed the ambitious projects of the usurper, and elevated to the throne Isdigertes II., the son of a brother of Siroes. The reign of this prince was short and unhappy. He defended his country with becoming resolution against the Saracens, till the spirits of his subjects were entirely broken by repeated defeats. At last, he was slain in battle; and in him ended the royal line of Artaxares. With his death terminated the Persian empire, which had maintained a splendid existence for upwards of four hundred years.

Questions on the History of Persia.

What were the names of Persia, and what was its extent? Into what provinces was it divided?

What are the nature of the climate, and the productions of the country?

Where was Persepolis situated? Where the palace of the kings? What remains of this palace still exist?

From whom were the Persians descended; and what in Scripture are they sometimes denominated? What was the nature of their government? How was the king approached? How was justice administered?

How did the ancient Persians educate their children? What power did parents possess over their children?

What were the punishments of the Persians? What was the object of the Persian laws? How was ingratitude treated?

To what were the Persians anciently trained? How did the grandees appear in public? When they designed to make war, what did the Persians first demand?

By whom were the Persians originally instructed in the knowledge of the true God? How did they regard the fire and the sun? In what principles do the Persians believe? What do they say regarding future punishments? And what regarding the creation of the world?

How are marriages contracted, and with whom? Whither are the dead carried? What was the design of a pyreum or fire-temple?

Who is the first king of Elam mentioned in Scripture? What were his actions, and by whom was he vanquished? In what period is the history of Persia clouded with fiction?

Who was Cyrus the Great? Where was he educated? In what year of his age was he called to the assistance of his uncle Cyaxares? What did he compel the king of Armenia to perform?

With what forces did Cyrus defeat the confederated nations under Croesus, king of Lydia? What was his conduct towards Croesus? After what length of time did he take Babylon?

When did the whole government of the empire devolve on Cyrus? What was the decree which he published relative to the Jews? How was he beloved, and at what age did he die? What did the Persian empire under Cyrus include, and how long did it stand?

By whom was Cyrus succeeded, and what was his first expedition? What expedition did he next project? What did the king of Ethiopia say to the spies whom Cambyses sent into that country? What was the conduct of Cambyses on this occasion, and what the result of the expedition?

What cruelties did Cambyses commit in Egypt? What was his conduct towards his brother Smerdis, his sister Meroe, the son of his favourite Prexaspes, Croesus, king of Lydia; and those who disobeyed his order regarding Croesus? By what was his death occasioned?

How was the counterfeit Smerdis detected, and assassinated? How was the throne filled, and by whom?

What was the conduct of Darius Hystaspes to Intaphernes, one of the conspirators against the counterfeit Smerdis? What did the wife of Intaphernes say, when she chose to liberate her brother rather than her husband?

At what time did Darius lead his forces against Babylon? What did the Babylonians do to prevent the consumption of their provisions? How was Babylon taken?

After settling the affairs of Babylon, what expedition did Darius undertake? What was the conduct of the Scythians, and the result of the expedition?

What was the consequence of the attempt against the isle of Naxos? By whom was the city of Sardis reduced to ashes? Were the Ionians and their allies, the Athenians, defeated? And to what did this assistance of the Athenians afterwards give rise?

After subjecting the Ionians and all the islands on the Asiatic coasts to his dominion, what expedition did Darius undertake? What was the result of this expedition?

Whom did Darius appoint in the room of Mardonius, who commanded the late expedition? What were the heralds instructed to demand of the Grecian states, as tokens of submission? What did Darius order his generals to perform?

By whom were the Persian generals conducted to the plains of Marathon? What Grecian forces marched to the plains of Marathon, to give battle to the Persians? By whom were the Grecian troops commanded, and what was the event of the battle? What did the conquerors find among the baggage?

Did Darius resolve to invade Greece in person? How is this prince mentioned in Scripture, and what was his character?

By whom was Darius succeeded, and what preparations did he con-

time? Into what alliance did Xerxes enter? What measure did he adopt to prevent a repetition of the disaster which befel the Persian fleet? How did his troops pass into Europe?

With what land army did the Persian monarch begin his march against Greece? of what number of vessels consisted his fleet? and what was the amount of the whole body of forces employed on this occasion? When Xerxes arrived at Thermopylæ, what was the total number of his troops?

Who was appointed general of the Athenian, and who of the Spartan, forces? What pass was it determined, that Leonidas should defend? What answer did Leonidas make to the herald sent to demand the arms of the Spartans? What was the fate of this body of Spartan warriors?

What measures were the Athenians persuaded to adopt? Did all the Athenians concur in these measures?

Where was the fleet of Persia completely defeated? How was Xerxes conveyed back into Asia? How did this success operate in favour of the Greeks? Where did the land army of the Greeks obtain a decisive victory, and where their fleet, on the same day? What preserved the Persians an influence in Greece?

For whom did Xerxes, whilst at Sardis, conceive a violent passion? To whom did he afterwards transfer his inclinations?

What was the fate of the wife of Masistes?

What did Masistes, when exasperated at this unparalleled outrage, and what was his fate? By whom was Xerxes murdered? By whom was Artabanus ordered to be put to death?

How did Artaxerxes further endeavour to secure his crown? How did he firmly establish himself in the empire?

Did the Egyptians in this reign regain their liberty? What peace did Artaxerxes conclude with the Greeks?

What occasioned the rebellion of Megabyzus; and how was the difference adjusted? To whom did Artaxerxes leave the succession?

How soon was Xerxes the Second assassinated; and what was the fate of the regicide?

What name did Ochus assume? What was the fate of his brother Arsites, who endeavoured to supplant him in the empire?

Did the Egyptians shake off the Persian yoke, and the Medes revolt? On whom did Darius bestow the supreme command in Asia Minor? For what reason did Darius recal Cyrus to court, and by whom was a reconciliation effected?

To whom did Darius leave the imperial diadem? What resolution did Cyrus adopt? What was the result of the battle between Artaxerxes and Cyrus? What did the ten thousand Greeks, under the conduct of Xenophon achieve?

By whom, and in what manner, was Statira, the consort of Artaxerxes, poisoned?

How was the war against Egypt, and that against the Greeks, carried on? What was the nature of the peace of Antalcidas?

What did Artaxerxes compel Evagoras, king of Cyprus, to cede? What was the event of the expedition against the Caducians?

For what purpose did Artaxerxes permit Darius, his eldest son, to assume the regal title and wear the tiara, and what was the consequence?

On the death of Darius, who became competitors for the crown? and what was the consequence of this competition?

For what purpose, and how long, did Ochus conceal the death of his father Artaxerxes? Of what cruelties was Ochus guilty?

What occasioned another rebellion? Was Ochus successful against the revolted and confederated provinces?

After reducing the revolted provinces, to what did Ochus abandon himself? What was the manner of the death of Ochus? By whom was Arses placed on the throne, and afterwards destroyed? On whom did Bagoas now bestow the imperial diadem? How did Tansius Codomanus avoid the death which Bagoas planned against him?

At what time, and for what purpose, did Alexander, king of Macedon, cross the Hellespont with an army? Where did Alexander attack the Persian force, and what was the event of the battle? What dangers did Alexander undergo in this battle? What was the consequence of the victory?

In what manner did Darius begin his march against the conqueror in person?

Whither did Darius lead his army? What was the event of the battle fought near the city of Issus? Whither did Darius retreat? What was the conduct of the Greek troops in the pay of Persia? Of what was Alexander now master? How did fortune now favour Alexander?

What did Darius offer to Alexander? Were the offers accepted?

Where did the Persian monarch next contend with Alexander? What was the event of this battle? What was the answer of Darius to his attendants, who advised him to break down the bridge over the river Lycus? What mountains did Darius pass?

Before what place did Alexander now appear? and what was done to the city of Persepolis?

Where did Darius seek an asylum? Who conspired against him? What was the object of this conspiracy? Did Alexander pursue the conspirators, and what was the fate of Darius?

Of what was the death of Darius the termination? and what was the character of this prince?

On the death of Darius, what was the conduct of the Persian commanders? and what was the fate of Nabarzanes and of Bessus? Of what was Alexander firmly established in possession?

How long was the Persian empire subject to the Parthians, and by whom was it restored? What title did Artaxares assume, and to what provinces did he assert his right? What was the demand made of the Romans, and how was it answered? After what time died Artaxares?

By whom was Artaxares succeeded, and what was his character? By whom were the dominions of Saporess invaded? To whom did he leave his kingdom?

What was the disposition of Hormisdas, and by whom was he succeeded?

What was the conduct of Varanes the Second?

What was the nature of the reign of Varanes the Third? What was the character of his successor? What were the actions of Narses? By whom was Narses succeeded?

What was the character of Saporess the Second? What did he endeavour to unite? Whom did he persecute? What scheme did he form, and what accomplish?

What was the expedition of the emperor Julian, and its result, against Saporess? What did Saporess obtain from the new emperor?

By whom was Saporess the Second succeeded, and how long did he reign? Whom did Varanes the Fourth succeed?

What were the character and conduct of Iadigertes?

By whom was Isdigertes succeeded? What took place in the reign of Varanes the Fifth? For what reason were the Christians favoured? Of what was Varanes possessed at his death?

How long reigned Varanes the Sixth? What was the character of his successor, and what were the results of the expeditions of Peroses against the Euthalites or White Huns?

On whom did the nobles bestow the crown, and what were the disposition and fate of Valens? By whom was he succeeded, and why was Cavades deposed? What happened to Zambades, who was raised to the throne? Why did Cavades invade Armenia, and what was the result of the expedition?

By whom was Cavades succeeded? What was the peace which Chosroes concluded? and what the conspiracy raised against him?

What induced Chosroes to commence fresh hostilities against the Romans? What did Belisarius, the Roman general? What was the nature of the treaty with the Romans? What occasioned the sickness and death of Chosroes?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was his character? How did Hormisdas regard his subjects? and how did the war with the Romans terminate?

What inspired Varnus, a Persian general, with the thought of effecting a revolution? By whom was Hormisdas deposed, and what was his punishment?

By whom was Hormisdas succeeded, and for what was Hormisdas beaten till he died? By whom was Chosroes the Second compelled to flee?

By whose assistance did Chosroes repossess himself of the crown? What were the state and behaviour which he assumed? What was his success against the Romans? What was the conduct of Chosroes towards Judea and the Christians? What empire did he add to that of Asia?

What answer did Chosroes send to the emperor Heraclius, who offered peace on any terms? and what was the end of this monarch?

What treaty did Siroes conclude, and what was his fate? By whom was Siroes succeeded? What crushed the ambitious projects of Sarbas? What was the nature of the reign of Isdigertes the Second? In whom ended the royal line of Artaxares, and when terminated the Persian empire?

PERSIA, ACCORDING TO THE ORIENTAL WRITERS.

In this epitome we shall consider the ancient history of Iran or Persia, as comprehending that space of time between the creation, or earliest records, and the middle of the seventh century, when the Mussulmans overthrew the Sassanian government.

THE FIRST, OR PEISHDADIAN DYNASTY.

I. *Caiumeras*, or *Caiumrath*, whom some suppose to have been the first man or Adam, and others the descen-

dant of Shem, the son of Noah, is considered by all as the most ancient king. He undertook the arduous task of civilizing mankind, whom he instructed in useful arts; and he subdued the Deeves, whom the poets describe as hideous monsters with claws and tails, but who were probably the barbarous inhabitants of the northern regions. *Tabari*, the historian, makes this monarch contemporary with the prophet *Edris* or Enoch; and some have thought him the *Chedorlaomer*, king of Elam, who is mentioned in the Holy Scriptures.* He was prodigiously tall. In longevity, also, he corresponds with the patriarchal ages, for he is said to have lived seven hundred or a thousand years, of which he reigned only thirty, according to some traditions. He laid the foundation of *Istakhar* (or Persepolis) and *Balkh*, and is supposed to have flourished about nine hundred years before Christ.

II. *Husheng*, surnamed *Peishdad*, or the just lawgiver, was the son, or, as others say, the grandson of *Caiumeras*. This prince introduced the art of working metals, invented the saw and the axe, struck sparks from the flint, and thus gave origin to fire-worship. He founded a city in *Khuzistan* or *Susiana*, and reigned forty, or, as some say, four hundred years. By many he is called *Iran*, whence *Persia* is said to have been so denominated; and from his surname also, the whole dynasty has been styled *Peishdadian*.

III. *Tahmuras*, who was the son or grandson of *Husheng*, obtained the surname of *Deeve-bend* from his victories over the demons or savages. He first made armour and caparison for horses, and introduced the art of writing. He lived one hundred years; but his reign is limited to thirty by many writers.

IV. *Jemshid*, the son (or brother) of *Tahmuras*, is thought to have flourished eight hundred years before Christ. He brought to perfection the arts which his predecessors had introduced; taught the manufacture of cotton, silk, and linen; and extended the city of *Istakhar*, or *Persepolis*, to twelve parasangs in length, and ten in breadth. He divided the people into four classes; priests and learned men, soldiers, husbandmen, and artisans. Some say that he worshipped the sun and moon: but *Tabari* affirms, that he was of the religion of Enoch. He intro-

* Genesis, chap. xiv.

duced among the Persians the use of the solar year, and the feast called *Nuruz*, and reigned, as the romances tell us, seven hundred years. He was put to death by

V. *Zohak* (or *Dkohak*), perhaps the *Dejoces* of Herodotus, who usurped the throne about seven hundred and eighty years before Christ. This tyrant is said by some to have been the son of an Arabian king, and by others the grandson of Caiumeras. His cruelties excited the people to a revolt; and one *Kad* or *Kaveh*, a blacksmith of Ispahan, hoisted his leathern apron as a standard, and being soon at the head of a powerful army, slew Zohak, and placed *Feridoun* on the throne.

VI. *Feridoun* or *Aferidoun*, who was a descendant of Jemshid and the son of *Abteen* or *Athvian*, ascended the throne about seven hundred and fifty years before Christ. He divided his empire into three parts, over each of which he placed one of his sons; but this distribution displeasing *Salm* and *Tour*, the two elder brothers, they combined against *Iraje* or *Iretch*, called also *Iran*, the youngest, and slew him. However, he left one daughter, whom, according to many historians, Feridoun, her grandfather, espoused; and from this marriage proceeded *Minocheher*, a valiant prince, who in revenge for the murder of Iraje, slew Salm and Tour, and was rewarded with the imperial diadem by Feridoun, who died after a reign of five hundred years. He resided chiefly at *Amol*, on the southern coast of the Caspian sea, and is said to have first mounted an elephant. His virtues, power, and magnificence, are celebrated in all the chronicles and romances of Iran.

VII. *Minocheher*, or *Manucheher*, is said to have been contemporary with Moses, and was compelled by *Afrasiab*, king of Asiatic Tartary, who was descended from *Tour*, to conclude a treaty, by which certain boundaries were prescribed to their respective dominions. The limits were to be ascertained by a bow-shot; and it is fabled, that a certain archer of Minocheher's army, having climbed to the summit of a hill in Tabaristan, discharged an arrow with such force, that it reached the banks of the river Jihoon, or Oxus, a distance of (at least) five hundred miles.

VIII. *Nudah*, the son of Minocheher, was slain by Afrasiab, who again invaded Persia, about the year 690 before Christ.

IX. *Afrasiab* governed Persia twelve years; but being, at last driven within the limits of his own kingdom, the throne of Iran was filled by,

X. *Zav*, or *Zaub*, the son of *Tahmash*, and grandson of *Minocheher*, about six hundred and forty years before Christ. He defeated *Afrasiab* on the tenth day (named *Aban*) of the month *Aban* (October). He was a just and an amiable king, repaired all the injuries which his country had suffered from the oppression of *Afrasiab*, and for seven years exempted his subjects from taxes or tribute.

XI. *Garshasp*, or *Gershasf*, is reckoned by some the vizier, and by others the son or nephew of *Zav*, with whom he participated in the administration of government. The history of the *Peishdadians* closes here, about six hundred years before the Christian æra, by a moderate calculation, which assigns to the ten or eleven kings of this dynasty a space of nearly three hundred years.

According to the oldest Persian writers, the religion and language of *Peishdadian* sovereigns differed little from those of their successors, though some may have occasionally paid homage to the sun and moon, and others have been accused of idolatry. *Feridoun* and his family were fire-worshippers; and fire-temples are said to have existed long before the age of *Zeratusht* or *Zoroaster*. Indeed, from some manuscripts it appears, that *Husheng* introduced the adoration of fire, though in other works he seems confounded with *Abad*, or *Mih-abad*, who is described as the first prophet of the Persians, and whose religion appears to have been a compound of idolatry, sabæism, and fire-worship. The language of Iran, in the time of those early kings, is supposed to have been the *Pehlavi* or *Pehlvi*, which very strongly resembles the Chaldaic.

THE SECOND, OR CAIANIAN DYNASTY.

I. *Cai-Kobad*, a lineal descendant of *Minocheher*, was contemporary with *Solomon*, according to *Tabari*, and is placed by sir *William Jones* six hundred and ten years before the commencement of our æra. The title *Cai*, which distinguishes the kings of this dynasty, signifies mighty or powerful. Under the reign of *Cai-Kobad*, the illustrious *Rustam* began to display that intrepidity of mind and preter-natural vigour of body, which confounded

all the enemies of Iran, and procured him the surname of *Jehaun-Phlevan*, or *the world's chief hero*. To him Cai-Kobad and his successors were indebted for various triumphs over the Asiatic Tartars; and the seven labours of Rustam are fully equivalent to the twelve of Hercules. A monument called the mound or bank of Rustam, was visible near the river *Hiermend*, in *Nimrouz*, till the fourteenth century of our æra, when every vestige of it was utterly effaced by the savage troops of Timur. Cai-Kobad is said to have reigned one hundred years.

II. He was succeeded by his son *Cai-Kaus*, about six hundred years before Christ. Some of our historians suppose him to have been Darius the Mede, and many oriental writers confound him with Nimrod. Being fond of astronomical studies, he erected a lofty building or observatory at Babylon; and he is, therefore, fabled to have attempted, on the wings of eagles, to soar above the clouds, and pry into the secrets of the stars. His son *Siavesh*, or *Siavekhsh*, being accused of an attempt to violate the chastity of his step-mother, proved his innocence by passing, unhurt, through a pile of blazing wood—an early instance of the fiery ordeal.

III. Cai-Kaus was succeeded by his grandson *Cai-Khosru*, who, according to sir William Jones, is the Cyrus of our historians, and is placed in the year 568 before Christ. After avenging the murder of his father, Siavesh, who had been slain by the Tartars, this prince resigned the crown to his subjects, who, at his recommendation, bestowed it on a prince of the royal blood, called Lohorasp.

IV. *Lohorasp*, after mounting the Persian throne, which was of gold studded with jewels, and its four feet of rubies, dispatched one of his nobles, named Bakht-nasser (or Nebuchadnezzar), with an army, to govern Mesopotamia, Syria, and Susiana, while he resided in the northern provinces, that he might the better repel the Tartar or Touranian invaders. Bakht-nasser destroyed Jerusalem, with the temple, and led back with him to Babylon a great number of the people of Israel as prisoners, among whom was Daniel, according to the historian Tabari. Lohorasp resigned the crown to his eldest son,

V. *Gushtasp*, who began his reign at Balkh, about five hundred years before the commencement of our æra, and is known to our writers as Darius Hystaspes. Being displeased at the havoc which Bakht-nasser had made in

Palestine, this prince sent another of his nobles (called *Kurus*) to govern at Babylon, with orders to send back the Jewish captives to their own country. These chose Daniel for their chief, and returned to Jerusalem, which they soon restored to its former state. In the reign of Gushtasp, *Zeratusht*, or *Zerdusht* (whom the Greeks call *Zoroaster*), announced himself as a prophet; endeavoured to prove his divine mission by miracles; and exhibited the work denominated *Zendavesta*, written in letters of gold, on twelve thousand skins of parchment, which, when the king embraced his doctrines, was deposited in the castle of Istakhar or Persepolis.

VI. *Bahman*, or *Ardeshir*, the son of Isfendyar, and grandson of Gushtasp, ascended the throne about four hundred and sixty four years before the commencement of our æra. As the Persians call him *Dirazdest*, or *Long-handed*, we may suppose him the Artaxerxes Longimanus of the Greek and Roman historians. In consequence of an insult offered to his ambassador by the Israelites, this monarch reinstated Bakht-nasser in the government of Babylon, and sent him with an army to Jerusalem, which he again destroyed, killing many thousands, and leading away multitudes of captives. In the extent of his dominions, Ardeshir seems to be the Ahasuerus of Holy Writ, who "*reigned from India even unto Ethiopia*," &c.; and his having espoused a beautiful damsel named *Ester*, whom he discovered among the Jewish captives, proves the identity. Ardeshir was a zealous fire-worshipper, erected many temples, and left the crown to his daughter Homai, who was also his wife.

VII. *Homai*, the daughter and wife of Bahman Ardeshir, was pregnant at the time of his death; and after being delivered of a male child, she caused him to be placed in a box, with money and jewels, and secretly cast into the river, whence he was taken by a poor man, who called him *Darab*, and educated him as his own son. Darab rendered himself eminent by some acts of valour; and the secret of his birth being discovered, Homai resigned the crown into his hands, and retired to a private life, about the year 424 before Christ.

VIII. *Darab*, or *Dara* the Great, is supposed to be the *Darius Nothus* of our historians. To him the neighbouring princes sent tribute, and among others Philip of

Macedon. He reigned twelve years, and was succeeded by his son,

IX. *Darab* (or *Dara*) the Lesser or the Second, whom we call Darius, and whom we may place three hundred and thirty seven years before Christ. Alexander, king of Macedon, having refused to pay the usual tribute, Dara waged war against the Greeks, and lost his crown and his life near *Erbil* or *Arbela*, where he was assassinated by two of his own officers, but did not expire till after a personal interview with Alexander. In consequence of his dying request, the victorious prince espoused *Rushenk* or *Roxana*, the daughter of *Darab*, punished his assassins, and ascended the throne of Persia.

X. *Sekander* or *Iskender*, as the Asiatics call Alexander, is generally reckoned among the sovereigns of Iran; and the graver historians of Persia agree in most points on the subject of his life with those of Greece and Rome. *Nizami* informs us, that the books of the magi or fire-worshippers were destroyed by his order, but that he preserved and caused to be translated into Greek, all the Persian treatises on philosophy, astronomy, and other sciences; that Aristotle was his vizier; that he erected a stupendous wall (of which the remains still exist near *Derbend*, on the Caspian Sea), to exclude the northern savages, the sons of *Yajouje* and *Majouje*, or *Gog* and *Magog*; and that, after extending his victorious arms over the greater portion of the world, he died at *Shahr-zour*, near Babylon, after a reign of fourteen years over the empire of Persia.

Before the age of *Zeratusht* or *Zoroaster*, the religion of the Caianian monarchs was probably composed of sabbæism and fire-worship. *Zeratusht* appears to have only purified that which he found in Iran, abolished some superstitions, and introduced others with new ceremonies and forms of prayer. However, to him, perhaps, may be ascribed the system of *one first principle*, with *two secondary*, *ormayd* and *aheriman*, good and evil; and the *Ferouas*, *Izeds*, a multiplicity of inferior spirits; but the worship of *one* invisible and almighty Creator under the visible symbol of fire, and the doctrine of rewards and punishments in a future state, the deformity of vice, and the excellence of virtue, which he inculcates, were acknowledged in Iran long before the age of his mission. It is probable, that the language suffered only little, if any, variation from the time of the preceding dynasty.

THE ASHKANIAN (OR ARSACIDAN) DYNASTY, WHICH SOME DIVIDE INTO THE ASHKANIAN AND ASHGHANIAN.

I. *Ashek* (*Arsaces*), son of Darab the first, began to reign about two hundred and forty-eight years before Christ, and was chief of the petty kings or princes fifteen years.

II. *Ashek* the Second succeeded his father, and reigned six, seven, or twelve years.

III. *Shapour* (*Sapor*), the son of *Ashek*, was surnamed the Great King, on account of his victories over the Greeks. By some writers the birth of Christ is placed in the time of this monarch, but by others much later.

IV. *Baharam* (or *Varanes*), the son of *Shapour*, who was surnamed *Gudarz*, erected an immense fire-temple, and reigned eleven years.

V. *Palas* (*Vologeses*), the son of *Baharam*, reigned eleven, or, as some say, fifteen years.

VI. *Hormuzd*, or *Hormuz*, the son of *Palash*, discovered the treasures of king *Feridoun*, and reigned fifteen or sixteen years.

VII. *Narsi*, the son of *Palash*, succeeded his brother *Hormuzd*, and is said to have had forty wives, and reigned forty years; but some tell us that he was king only fourteen years.

VIII. *Firouz*, the son of *Hormuzd*, succeeded his uncle *Narsi*, and reigned seventeen years.

IX. *Palash*, the son of *Firouz*, reigned twelve years, according to the historian *Mirkhond*.

X. *Khosru*, the son of *Palash*, is said by some to have reigned twenty-four, and by others forty years.

XI. *Palash* (or *Palashan*), the son of *Palash*, son of *Firouz*, was killed by the fall of his tent-pole. He is said in the *Tarikh Jehan Ara*, to have reigned twelve years.

XII. *Ardaban*, or *Artabanus*, the son of *Palashan*, reigned thirteen years, and was the last of the race properly called *Ashkanian*.

I. *Ardaban*, who was descended from the race of *Fariborz*, the son of *Cai-Khaus*, was the son of *Ashegh*, from whom this second branch of the *Malouk al Tavayef* derived the name of *Ashghanians*. He snatched the empire from the *Ashkanians*, and reigned twenty-three years.

II. *Khosru*, the son of *Ashegh*, succeeded his brother, and reigned twelve or sixteen years.

III. *Palash*, the son of *Ashegh*, or, as some say, of *Khosru*, reigned twelve years; and in this king's reign is placed the birth of Christ by the *Tarikh Gozideh*.

IV. *Gudarz*, surnamed *the Great*, succeeded his father *Palash*, and reigned thirty years.

V. *Narsi*, the son, or, as some, say the grandson, of *Gudarz*, reigned twenty years.

VI. *Gudarz*, the son of *Narsi*, reigned ten years.

VII. *Narsi*, the son of *Gudarz*, was engaged in wars with the Greeks, who invaded Persia; and after a reign of eleven or fifteen years, he was succeeded by his son,

VIII. *Ardaban* (or *Ardavan*), the *Artabanus* of our historians, who was slain in battle with *Ardeshir Barbekan*, about two hundred years after Christ, and with whom terminated this dynasty, which we call that of the *Parthians* or *Arsacidæ*.

Many of the kings who governed in Persia after Alexander, are accused of idolatry and polytheism. It is probable, that some of them adopted the religion of the Greeks, and we find Greek devices and inscriptions on the Arsacidan coins; but the Pahlavi continued to be the general language of Iran, and fire-worship and the religion of Zeratusht, though perhaps neglected by some of those monarchs, were predominant throughout their dominions.

THE SASSANIAN DYNASTY.

In this portion of Asiatic history, the accounts of the Greek and Latin writers agree, in most respects, with the Persian records, and the traditions are less tinged with Fable.

I. *Ardeshir Babekan*, whom the Greeks call Artaxares, or Artaxerxes, having defeated and slain *Ardavan* or *Artabanus*, last of the Arsacidan race, became sovereign of Persia, about the year of Christ 202. In consequence of his being descended from *Sassan*, the son of *Bahman Ardeshir*, of the Caianian dynasty, *Ardeshir* and his family have been styled *Sassanians*, or *Sassanidæ*. He repaired and erected fire-temples, assembled the most learned priests, whom he caused to collect and revise the works of Zera-

the Roman emperor Justinian, and favoured *Mazdak*, a man of Istakhar, who announced himself as a prophet, and introduced the doctrine of perfect equality among men, with the community of possessions, and even of wives. The nobles and learned men of his court, disgusted by the licentiousness and disorder which the doctrine of Mazdak produced, drove Kobad from his capital.

XX. *Nushirvan*, or *Anushkrevan*, the son of Kobad, began to reign about the year of Christ 530. His proper name is said to have been *Kesra* or *Kesri*, from which the Greek writers formed *Chosroes*. He is celebrated for his bravery, his generosity, and, above all, for his inflexible justice, by which he acquired the glorious epithet of *Adel*, or *the Just*, bestowed on him by Mohammed, who was born during his reign. He endeavoured to extirpate Mazdak's followers, of whom eighty or an hundred thousand men were slain in one day, whilst their leader was flayed alive.

XXI. *Hormuzd*, or *Hormuz* the Fourth, son of *Nushirvan*, obtained a victory over the Tartars, by the assistance of *Baharam Chobin*, whom our historians call *Varamus*; but he ungratefully rewarded this gallant general, to whom he sent the dress and ornaments of a woman, and who, in consequence, afterwards rebelled and imprisoned his sovereign, and usurped the royal dignity. *Khosru*, the son of *Hormuzd*, formed a party against *Baharam*, and drove him into Tartary where he died by poison. *Hormuzd* was put to death after a reign of twelve years.

XXII. *Khosru*, who was surnamed *Parviz* or *Aparviz* (the Victorious), ascended the throne about the year of Christ 592. This prince was invited by a letter from Mohammed to embrace the religion of Islamism; but *Khosru*, offended at seeing the name of an obscure Arab placed before his own, tore the letter with indignation, and Mohammed uttered a true and revengeful prediction, that the Persian empire should be rent in like manner. He was dethroned and murdered by his son *Shirouieh*, in the year 626 or 628.

XXIII. *Shirouieh*, whom our historians call *Siroes*, made peace with the emperor Heraclius, and reigned only seven months.

XXIV. *Ardeshir*, the infant son of *Shirouieh*, reigned only five or eighteen months.

XXV. *Shahrizar*, whom some call *Shahriran*, or *Shary-*

ezad, usurped the throne, and was assassinated after a reign of a few weeks, or, as some say, of two years.

XXVI. *Pouran Dokht*, the sister of *Shirouieh*, and daughter of *Khosru Parviz*, was an amiable princess, but reigned only a few months.

XXVII. *Azermi Dokht*, another daughter of *Khosru Parviz*, was placed on the throne, but put to death after a reign of six months.

XXVIII. *Ferokhzad* was now declared king, as a descendant of *Khosru Parviz*. Two or three princes are said to have filled the throne for only a few days or hours. However, all agree, that

XXIX. *Yezdejerd*, the son of *Shakriar*, a son of *Khosru Parviz*, was the last monarch of this dynasty. In the year of Christ 632 he commenced his reign, which, though it lasted twenty years, is little more than a detail of battles between the Persians and the Arabs. *Yezdejerd* was defeated and slain in the year 652, and left a child, from whom descended, in the female line, the caliph *Yezid*. By this catastrophe, the empire of Persia, which the descendants of *Sassan* had held four hundred and thirty years, was transferred to the victorious Mussulmans.

The religion of Persia, whilst under the government of the Sassanians, was that of *Zeratusht* or Zoroaster, whose doctrines are exhibited in the *Zendavesta*, which does not appear to have been speedily superseded by the Koran of Mohammed. Three or four centuries, after the Mussulman conquest, multitudes of Persians worshipped in their fire-temples unmolested; and their descendants are still zealously attached to the religion of their ancestors. The *Pahlavi*, was spoken at the court of *Nushirvan*, but, according to other traditions, yielded at that of *Baharam Gour* to the polished *Deri*, that soft and easy dialect, which, though vitiated by the introduction of Turkish and Arabic terms, continues to be at this day the proper language of Iran.

Questions on the History of Persia, according to the Oriental Writers.

What space of time does this ancient history of Iran or Persia comprehend?

The first or Peishdadian Dynasty.

I. Who was *Caiumeras* or *Caiumrath*, and what did he undertake and achieve? With whom is he said to have been contemporary? In what does he correspond with the patriarchal ages? What cities did he found, and when is he supposed to have flourished?

II. Who was *Husheng*, surnamed *Peishdad*? What did he introduce and invent? Where did he found a city, and how long did he reign? What name is given to him by many? and from what was the whole dynasty styled?

III. Why was *Tahmuras* surnamed *Deeve-bend*? Of what was he the first maker? What did he introduce? How long did he live and reign?

IV. Who was *Jemshid*, and when did he flourish? What arts and manufacture did he perfect and teach, and how far extend the city of *Istakhar*, or *Persepolis*? How did he divide the people? What was his religion? What did he introduce among the *Permians*, and how long do the romances say that he reigned? By whom was he put to death?

V. Who was *Zohak* (or *Dhohak*), and when did he usurp the throne? Whose son or grandson is he said to have been? What events did his cruelties produce?

VI. When did *Feridoun*, or *Aferidoun*, ascend the throne? How did he divide the empire, and what occasioned the death of *Iraque*? Who was *Minocheher*? How long did *Feridoun* reign? Where did he chiefly reside, and for what was he celebrated?

VII. With whom was *Minocheher*, or *Manucheher*, contemporary? What treaty did he conclude with *Afrasiab*, an African prince, and how were the limits of their respective dominions ascertained?

VIII. By whom was *Nuduh*, the son of *Minocheher*, slain?

IX. How long did *Afrasiab* reign?

X. Who was *Zut*, or *Zarb*, and when did he reign? Whom did he defeat, and what was his character?

XI. Who was *Garahasp*, or *Gershasf*? When does the history of the *Peishdadians* close?

What were the religion and language of the *Peishdadian* sovereigns?

The Second, or Caianian Dynasty.

I. With whom was *Cai-Kobad* contemporary? What is the signification of the title *Cai*? What was the surname given, and for what reason, to *Rustam*? How did *Rustam* signalize himself, and till what time was a monument or mound erected to him visible? How long reigned *Cai-Kobad*?

II. By whom, and when, was he succeeded? Who was *Cai-Kaus*, and for what reason is he fabled to have attempted to soar above the clouds? What is recorded of his son *Siavesh*, or *Siavekhsh*?

III. By whom was *Cai-Kaus* succeeded? When did *Cai-Khosru* resign the throne?

IV. What were the actions of *Lohorasp*, and what the achievements of one of his nobles, named *Bakht-nasser* (or *Nebuchadnezzar*)?

V. When did *Gushtasp* begin to reign, and by what name is he known to our writers? Whom did he send to govern at *Babylon*, and with what orders? When did *Zeratusht*, or *Zerdusht* (the *Zoroaster* of the Greeks), announce his mission as a prophet? What was his work called, and where deposited?

VI. When did *Bakman*, or *Ardeshir*, ascend the throne of Persia? Whom is he supposed to have been designated by the Greek and Roman historians? Why did he reinstate *Bakht-nasser* in the government of Babylon, and whither did he send him? Why does *Ardeshir* seem to be the *Ahasuerus* of *Holy Writ*? What was his religion, and to whom did he leave the crown?

VII. How was the child of *Homai* preserved, and when, and to whom did she resign the crown?

VIII. Whom is *Darab*, or *Dara*, the Great, supposed to be designated by our historians? Who paid him tribute, and who was his successor?

IX. Who was *Darab* (or *Dera*) the Lesser or the Second, and when did he reign? Why did *Darab* wage war against the Greeks, and what was the event?

X. Who was *Sekander* or *Ishender*, and respecting him how do the graver historians of Persia agree with those of Greece and Rome? Of him what does *Nizami* inform us?

Before the age of *Zeratusht* or *Zoroaster*, what was the religion of the *Caianian* monarchs? What did *Zeratusht* effect? What was the language during this dynasty?

The Ashkanian (or Arsacidan) Dynasty, which some divide into the Ashkanian and Ashghanian.

I. When did *Ashek* (*Arsaces*) begin to reign, and how long was he chief of the petty kings or princes?

II. Whom did *Ashek* succeed, and how long did he reign?

III. What was *Shapour* (*Sapor*) surnamed? When is the birth of Christ placed?

IV. What did *Baharam* (or *Varanes*), and how long did he reign?

V. How long reigned *Palash* (*Vologeses*)?

VI. What did *Hormuzd*, or *Hormuz*, discover, and how long did he reign?

VII. Whom did *Narsi* succeed, and how long did he reign?

VIII. Whom did *Firouz* succeed, and how long did he reign?

IX. How long reigned *Palash*?

X. How long reigned *Khosru*?

XI. How long reigned *Palash* (or *Palashan*)?

XII. How long reigned *Ardaban*, or *Artabanus*, and of whom was he the last?

I. Who was *Ardaban*, and what did he effect?

II. How long reigned *Khosru*?

III. How long reigned *Palash*, and what event is placed in his reign?

IV. Whom did *Gudarz* succeed, and how long did he reign?

V. How long reigned *Narsi*, the son or grandson of *Gudarz*?

VI. How long reigned *Gudarz*, the son of *Narsi*?

VII. In what was *Narsi*, the son of *Gudarz*, engaged, and by whom was he succeeded?

VIII. When was *Ardaban* (or *Ardavan*) slain, and what terminated with his death?

What was the religion of the kings of Persia after Alexander? What was the last? What the predominant religion?

The Sassanian Dynasty.

What is the nature of this portion of Asiatic history ?

I. When, and by what means, did *Ardesbir Babekan*, whom the Greeks call *Artaxates*, or *Artaxerxes*, become sovereign of Persia ? Why were he and his family styled *Sassanians*, or *Sassanids* ? What were his actions, the length of his reign, and his general character ?

II. When did *Shapour* (*Sapor*) begin his reign, and how long did it continue ?

III. When did *Hormuzd* (*Hormisdas*) succeed *Shapour* ?

IV. When did *Baharam* the First begin his reign ?

V. When did *Baharam* the Second succeed his father, and how long did he reign ?

VI. Whom did *Baharam* the Third succeed, and how long did he reign ?

VII. Who was *Narsi*, and to whom, and when, did he resign the crown ?

VIII. What was the conduct of *Hormuzd* the Second on the throne ? What was his dying request ?

IX. When was *Shapour* (or *Sapor*) the Second declared king ? For what was his reign remarkable ? Why did he obtain the surname of *Dhu'l'ectaf* ? How long did he reign, and by whom was he succeeded ?

X. When did *Ardesbir* the Second begin to reign, and to whom was he obliged to resign the throne ?

XI. What was the fate of *Shapour* the Third ?

XII. What was the character of *Baharam* the Fourth, and how, and when, was he killed ?

XIII. What was the character of *Yezdegerd* (*Isdigerdes*) the First, how long did he reign, and by whom was he succeeded ?

XIV. What was the surname of *Baharam* the Fifth, and how did he encourage music ? How long did he reign, and what was the manner of his death ?

XV. What was the surname of *Yezdegerd* the Second, and what were his actions and character ? How long did he reign, and to whom bequeath the crown ?

XVI. What was the character of *Hormuzd* or *Hormuz*, the Third, and when, and by whom, was he dethroned ?

XVII. In what year is *Frouz* placed ? What was his true name ? How was Persia afflicted in his reign, and what was the conduct of the king ? When was he slain ?

XVIII. Who succeeded *Frouz*, and how long did he reign ?

XIX. When was *Kisad* declared king, what were his actions, and for what reason was he driven from his capital ?

XX. When did *Nushi van*, or *Daushrevan*, begin to reign, and what was his proper name ? For what is he celebrated, and what was his conduct towards the followers of *Mazdak* ?

XXI. With whom did *Hormuzd*, or *Hormuz*, the Fourth, wage war, and what was his conduct to his general, and its consequence ? Whither was the usurper obliged to flee, and of what did he die ? When was *Hormuzd* put to death ?

XXII. What was the surname of *Khosru*, and when did he ascend the throne ? How did he receive the invitation of *Mohammed* to embrace Islamism ? and what was the prediction of *Mohammed* ? What was the fate of *Khosru* ?

XXIII. With whom did *Shirouah* make peace ?

XXIV. How long reigned *Ardesbir* ?

XXV. How long reigned the usurper *Shahriar*, *Shahriran*, or *Shah-yezad*?

XXVI. What were the character and reign of *Pouran Dokht*?

XXVII. Who was *Azermi Dokht*?

XXVIII. When was *Ferokhzad* declared king, and in what manner was the throne now filled?

XXIX. Who was the last monarch of this dynasty? When did *Yezdeجرد* begin to reign, what was the character of his reign, and when was he slain? Did he leave any child? When, and by what means, was the empire of Persia transferred to the Mussulmans? What was the religion of Persia under the government of the Sassanians? What has it been since, and what is it still? What was the language of Persia, and which is at this day the proper language of Iran?

PHŒNICIANS.

THE Phœnicians were the descendants of Canaan, the grandson of Noah, and occupied a tract of country, which was bounded on the north and east by Syria, on the south by Judea, and on the west by the Mediterranean. Sidon was the capital; and their other principal cities were Tyre, Aradus, Tripoli, Byblus, Sarepta, and Berytus.

The Phœnicians, being the descendants of Noah, must originally have been instructed in the worship of the true God; but having gradually degenerated to the deification of deceased mortals, they became immersed in idolatry and superstition. The principal objects of their adoration were Beelsamen, or the sun; Baal, whose altars were usually covered with burnt sacrifices; Astarte, to whom drink-offerings were poured out as to "the queen of heaven;" Hercules, whose rites were performed with great solemnity; Adonis, the favourite of Venus; and certain small statues, called *Patæci*, which, being venerated as the tutelar gods of sea-faring men, were always carried about in the prows of Phœnician vessels.

The Phœnicians either invented, or materially improved, the excellent sciences of arithmetic and astronomy. Their glass, purple, and fine linen, were the products of their own country and invention. They were so well skilled in architecture, that Solomon requested their assistance in the erection of his magnificent temple. They engrossed the commerce of all the western hemisphere; and in navigation, they were unparalleled for experience, skill, and intrepidity. The fish, which afforded the Tyrian purple, and tended to enrich the inhabitants, is now either lost, or unknown to the present natives.

Phœnicia was divided into several small kingdoms, of which the most considerable were those of Sidon, Tyre, and Arad. Sidon, the eldest son of Canaan, founded the city which bore his name. (B. C. 481.) The next Sidonian monarch mentioned in history is Tetramnestus, who assisted Xerxes in his expedition against Greece. He was succeeded by Tennes, under whom the Sidonians became subject to the Persians. But they attempting to recover their ancient liberties, Darius Ochus marched against them with all his forces, with a determination to subjugate or destroy them. While the unsuspecting Sidonians were preparing for a vigorous defence, Tennes marched out of the city with a body of five hundred men, and a hundred of the chief citizens, to the enemy's camp, and delivered them up to Ochus, who sentenced the citizens to death, as authors of the rebellion. The other inhabitants, perceiving that the Persians were admitted within their walls, shut themselves up with their wives and children, and, setting fire to their houses, perished to the number of forty thousand.

The Sidonians, who were at this time absent from their country, rebuilt the ruined city, and elected one Strato to fill the throne, but ever after bore an unconquerable aversion to the Persian name. A few years after their calamity, they submitted, without repugnance, to Alexander the Great, eagerly embracing that opportunity of shaking off a heavy and detestable yoke. Strato, however, opposed this measure; and Alexander, therefore, deprived him of the crown. Strato is described as a licentious character, who assembled his female subjects (B. C. 333), that he might have an opportunity of selecting the most beautiful for his own pleasure. Hephæstion, the general of Alexander, nominated one of the chief citizens to the regal dignity; but the proffered gift was modestly refused by the citizen, who observed that he possessed no title to it, as he was not of the royal family; and by his advice, Hephæstion bestowed the crown on a person denominated Ballonymus, whom the messenger found clothed in rags, and working in a garden as a common labourer.

(B. C. 1056.) Abibal is the first king of Tyre, of whom history makes mention; but nothing is recorded relative to his actions, or the length of his reign. He was succeeded by his son Hiram, who, at the request of Solomon,

furnished that prince with wood from Lebanon, for building the temple of Jerusalem, and for fitting out his fleets.

(B. C. 1012.) On the demise of Hiram, the crown devolved on his son Baleazar, and was successively worn by Abdastartus, Astartus, Astarimus, Phelles, Ithobal, Badzor, Mettinus, and Pygmalion. This last prince murdered Sichæus, his brother-in-law, to obtain his treasures, which, however, Elisa or Dido, the widow of Sichæus, concealed and carried away in ships. She was accompanied by many adventurers, and sailing first for Cyprus, whence they carried off a great number of young women, they afterwards steered their course for Africa, where they landed, and founded the celebrated city of Carthage.

(B. C. 717.) The next king of Tyre mentioned in history was Elulæus, in whose reign the city was blockaded by Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, who ordered the aqueducts to be stopped, and all the conveyances of water to be cut off. The Tyrians, however, held out for five years, when Shalmaneser died. Ithobal II. is spoken of in Holy Writ, as a proud, arrogant, and assuming prince, who affected a knowledge of all secrets (B. C. 585), and even ranked himself among the gods. In his reign, Nebuchadnezzar besieged Tyre for thirteen years, when he took the city, and razed it to the ground.

It is supposed that the Tyrians retreated to an island about half a mile distant from the shore, where they built a new city. They changed the regal dignity into that of temporary magistrates, called suffetes or judges, but afterwards returned to royalty. The Tyrian slaves having entered into a conspiracy, massacred their masters, and determined to elect a king out of their own body. It was agreed that he who first perceived the rising sun the next morning, should be raised to the supreme dignity. Strato's slave, whose fidelity had saved the life of his master, was instructed to turn his face to the *west*, and keep his eye fixed on the top of the highest tower in the city; he did so; and whilst his companions looked with anxious expectation towards the east, he first perceived the solar rays illumining the lofty structure. On being interrogated to whom he was indebted for so admirable a contrivance, he replied, to his master. Strato being, therefore, considered an object of divine favour, was immediately placed on the throne.

(B. C. 332.) In the reign of Azelmic happened the w

morable siege of Tyre by Alexander the Great, who twice erected a mole to connect the continent with the island on which the city stood, and twice battered down the lofty walls. At length, after a siege of seven months, and after using all kinds of missile weapons, triple-forked hooks, and massy balls of red-hot iron, the Tyrians were obliged to yield to the conqueror. Alexander put to the sword eight thousand citizens, crucified two thousand, and sold nearly thirty thousand for slaves; and having totally destroyed the place, he planted a new colony in its stead.

(B. C. 333.) Arad was also governed by kings, as well as Sidon and Tyre. Narbal, the successor of Arbal, assisted Xerxes against Greece. Gerostratus served under Darius Codomannus, till hearing that his son Strato had put a golden crown on the head of Alexander, he voluntarily submitted to the power of the Macedonian hero.

Questions on the History of Phœnicia.

Who were the Phœnicians, and what tract of country did they occupy? What was the name of their capital, and of each of their principal cities?

What was their religion, and what were the principal objects of their adoration?

What sciences did they improve, what were the products of their country? What was their skill in architecture, and what was their commerce, and their knowledge of navigation? What was the fish which afforded the Tyrian purple?

How was Phœnicia divided? Who founded the city of Sidon? Who was the next monarch? To whom did the Sidonians become subject, under Tennes? What were the consequences of their attempt to recover their liberties?

Who rebuilt the ruined city of Sidon, and whom did they elect to fill the throne? To whom did they afterwards willingly submit? What was the character of Strato? and on whom did Hephæstion bestow the crown?

Who was the first king of Tyre? By whom was he succeeded, and how did his successor assist Solomon?

After Hiram, by whom was the crown of Tyre worn? Of what murder, and for what purpose, was Pygmalion guilty? What did Elisa or Dido effect?

What happened to the Tyrians in the reign of Elulæus? What is the character in Holy Writ of Ithobal the Second, and what befel Tyre in his reign?

Whither did the Tyrians retreat, and what was their form of government? After putting their masters to death, whom, and for what cause, did the Tyrian slaves place on the throne?

When, and in what manner, did Alexander the Great besiege and take the city of Tyre? What was the conduct of the conqueror to the inhabitants and the city?

How was Arad governed, and which of its kings assisted Xerxes against Greece? What was the conduct of Gerostratus?

ANCIENT SYRIANS.

THE ancient Syrians were partly descended from Ham, and partly from Shem, the sons of Noah, and occupied a fertile tract of country, which lay between mount Taurus on the north, the Euphrates on the east, Arabia Deserta, Palestine, and Phœnice, on the south, and the Mediterranean on the west, and which extended from the thirty-fourth to the thirty-eighth degree of north latitude. Though anciently parcelled into several petty kingdoms, it was divided in later ages into four principal states, viz. Zobah, Damascus, Hamath, and Geshur.

The ancient Syrians were respectable for their learning and arts, and rose to a high pitch of splendour and opulence. Their religion soon degenerated from that of their progenitors into gross idolatry. At Hierapolis stood a magnificent temple, which was dedicated to the great Syrian goddess, and the whole of which glittered with gold. The donations, which surrounding nations sent thither, composed a treasure of inestimable value. Twice a year, certain infatuated devotees climbed up to the top of high columns where they remained seven days, and pretended to hold an immediate intercourse with the great goddess. At another of their festivals, their gods were supposed to pay a visit to a certain lake near the temple, where sacred fishes were kept, and a stone altar was continually smoking with incense. Their language became a distinct tongue so early as the time of the patriarch Jacob. It was spoken not only in Syria, but also in Mesopotamia, Chaldea, and Assyria; and after the Babylonish captivity, it was introduced into Palestine.

The only kings of Zobah noticed in history, are Rehob, under whom the petty states coalesced in the time of Saul (B. C. 1044); and Hadadezer, who was a great and an ambitious prince, and remarkable for his unsuccessful battles with king David. The war terminated in the total defeat of his forces, and the destruction of his kingdom.

Zobah being thus completely crushed, Rezin seized on Damascus, which he erected into a kingdom, and became an inveterate enemy to Solomon. Benhadad II. had scarcely ascended the throne (B. C. 901), when he resolved to prosecute against Israel the war which his predecessor had commenced. Having, therefore, assembled an incre-

the Roman emperor Justinian, and favoured *Mazdak*, a man of Istakhar, who announced himself as a prophet, and introduced the doctrine of perfect equality among men, with the community of possessions, and even of wives. The nobles and learned men of his court, disgusted by the licentiousness and disorder which the doctrine of Mazdak produced, drove Kobad from his capital.

XX. *Nushirvan*, or *Anushrevan*, the son of Kobad, began to reign about the year of Christ 530. His proper name is said to have been *Kesra* or *Kesri*, from which the Greek writers formed *Chosroes*. He is celebrated for his bravery, his generosity, and, above all, for his inflexible justice, by which he acquired the glorious epithet of *Adel*, or *the Just*, bestowed on him by Mohammed, who was born during his reign. He endeavoured to extirpate Mazdak's followers, of whom eighty or an hundred thousand men were slain in one day, whilst their leader was flayed alive.

XXI. *Hormuzd*, or *Hormuz* the Fourth, son of *Nushirvan*, obtained a victory over the Tartars, by the assistance of *Baharam Chobin*, whom our historians call *Varamus*; but he ungratefully rewarded this gallant general, to whom he sent the dress and ornaments of a woman, and who, in consequence, afterwards rebelled and imprisoned his sovereign, and usurped the royal dignity. *Khosru*, the son of *Hormuzd*, formed a party against *Baharam*, and drove him into Tartary where he died by poison. *Hormuzd* was put to death after a reign of twelve years.

XXII. *Khosru*, who was surnamed *Parviz* or *Aparviz* (the Victorious), ascended the throne about the year of Christ 592. This prince was invited by a letter from Mohammed to embrace the religion of Islamism; but *Khosru*, offended at seeing the name of an obscure Arab placed before his own, tore the letter with indignation, and Mohammed uttered a true and revengeful prediction, that the Persian empire should be rent in like manner. He was dethroned and murdered by his son *Shirouieh*, in the year 626 or 628.

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XXVIII. *Ferokhzad* was now declared king, as a descendant of *Khosru Parviz*. Two or three princes are said to have filled the throne for only a few days or hours. However, all agree, that

XXIX. *Yezdejerd*, the son of *Shahriar*, a son of *Khosru Parviz*, was the last monarch of this dynasty. In the year of Christ 632 he commenced his reign, which, though it lasted twenty years, is little more than a detail of battles between the Persians and the Arabs. *Yezdejerd* was defeated and slain in the year 652, and left a child, from whom descended, in the female line, the caliph *Yezid*. By this catastrophe, the empire of Persia, which the descendants of *Sassan* had held four hundred and thirty years, was transferred to the victorious Mussulmans.

The religion of Persia, whilst under the government of the Sassanians, was that of *Zeratusht* or Zoroaster, whose doctrines are exhibited in the *Zendavesta*, which does not appear to have been speedily superseded by the Koran of Mohammed. Three or four centuries, after the Mussulman conquest, multitudes of Persians worshipped in their fire-temples unmolested; and their descendants are still zealously attached to the religion of their ancestors. The *Pahlavi*, was spoken at the court of *Nushirvan*, but, according to other traditions, yielded at that of *Baharam Gour* to the polished *Deri*, that soft and easy dialect, which, though vitiated by the introduction of Turkish and Arabic terms, continues to be at this day the proper language of Iran.

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Scythopolis. Thence they marched into Egypt; but Psammeticus, king of that country, prevailed on them to return, and thus saved his dominions from plunder and desolation. During their absence, their wives married their slaves; and a numerous offspring was the fruit of this commerce. When the Scythians returned, they armed themselves with whips, and attacked the slaves, who fled, and the women killed themselves.

Tomyris was a Scythian heroine, whom Cyrus the Great demanded in marriage; but she refusing him, that prince led his army against the Massagetes, who were then under her dominion, and lost his life.

Jancyrus was a haughty and magnanimous prince, who, when the Persian heralds demanded of him earth and water, sent to Darius a bird, a mouse, a frog, and five arrows, without any farther application. The Persian monarch immediately supposed, that this present was sent in token of submission; but Gobrias, who knew the Scythians better than his master, interpreted it to denote, that the Persians must not expect to elude the effects of Scythian valour, unless they could fly like birds, plunge under water like frogs, or bury themselves in the earth like mice. This explanation was soon justified; and the Scythians obtained a signal victory over the Persian army.

Saulius is said to have killed Anacharsis, a prince of the blood, for presuming to introduce the nocturnal rites of the mother of the gods into Scythia.

Aripithes had a numerous progeny, and in particular a son named Scythes, whose mother had caused him to be instructed in all the Grecian customs. When Scythes, therefore, ascended the throne, he appeared to possess so great a predilection for the effeminate luxuries of the Greeks, that his subjects, irritated at this preference, dethroned him, and elected his brother Octamasades, king in his stead.

Ariantes is said to have ordered all his soldiers to appear before him, and every one to throw the tip of an arrow into a common heap, which amounted to so great a bulk, that he caused it to be melted down and cast into a large vessel, as a monument of the transaction.

Atheas obtained from Philip, king of Macedon, a considerable succour against an invasion with which he was threatened; and when the enemy, terrified by the prepa-

rations of Philip, desisted from their design, he pretended that he owed him no recompence, because a war had not taken place. Philip, incensed at this ingratitude, signified to the Scythian, that he had made a vow to erect a statue to Hercules at the mouth of the Ister. Atheas, suspecting his real design, answered, that, if he sent the statue, it should be carefully erected and preserved; but that, if he entered the Scythian territories at the head of an army, the statue should be melted and cast into arrows to be used against himself. Philip paid no attention to these proud menaces; and an obstinate battle ensued, in which the Scythians were vanquished, and in which twenty thousand women and children were made prisoners. Philip sent into Macedonia twenty thousand Scythian mares, and a vast quantity of cattle. As a proof of the simplicity and poverty of the Scythians, it is observable, that neither gold, silver, nor jewels, were found among the plunder. From this period, little notice is taken of them as a collective nation, though the different tribes of which they were composed, signalized themselves on various future occasions.

Questions on the History of the Scythians.

What tract of country did the Scythians inhabit, what were they styled, and from whom descended? In migrating into Europe, whither did the descendants of Magog spread themselves?

What was their form of government? What were the traits of character which the Scythians exhibited? How did they convey their families? What did they esteem as their greatest wealth? What were the objects of their contempt? What were their virtues, and how obtained? What was the cruel disposition of some of the Scythian tribes?

What took place among the Scythians, at the funeral of a monarch? How was the hearse accompanied? Where was the body deposited, and what took place at the interment? At the expiration of the year, what were placed round the monument?

What deities were worshipped by the Scythians?

How were the warlike temper and exploits of the Scythians regarded? How did they treat their vanquished enemies? What were their manufactures and commerce? For what were they remarkable?

In what manner did the Scythians cross a river? How were they remarkable for their friendship and enmities? Were they populous and long-lived?

Who was Scythes?

Whom did Sagillus send to assist the Amazons against Theseus?

What was the disposition of Madyes, and what did the Scythians effect under his conduct? What happened in Scythia during the time the Scythians were engaged in foreign war? What took place at their return?

What is recorded of Tomyris?

What did Jancyrus when the Persian heralds demanded of him earth and water? How did Darius understand the present, and how was it afterwards interpreted and verified?

For what did Saulius kill Anacharsis?

In what was Scythes instructed, and for what reason was he de-throned, and his brother Octamasades raised to the throne?

What was the order issued by Ariantes?

What was the ingratitude of Atheas to Philip, king of Macedon, and how was it punished? What was the nature of the booty which Philip obtained after the battle? From what period is little notice taken of the Scythians as a nation?

PHRYGIANS.

PHRYGIA PROPER, according to Ptolemy, was anciently a very fertile tract of country, situated between the thirty-seventh and forty-first degrees of north latitude, and extending from fifty-six to sixty-two degrees of longitude. It was bounded on the north by Pontus and Bithynia; on the east by Pamphyha and Galatia; on the south by Lycia; and on the west by Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Mæonia, and the Ægean Sea.

The Phrygians were descended from Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet. They were a superstitious, voluptuous, and an effeminate people, destitute of prudence, and of such a servile disposition, that nothing but stripes and ill usage could induce them to comply with their duty. Their music, which was commonly called the Phrygian mood, was chiefly calculated to enervate the mind. Their commerce was probably very considerable; and their city of Apamea is said to have been the chief emporium of all Asia Minor. They possessed a competent skill in geography, geometry, and astronomy, with a great knowledge of music. Being much addicted to superstition, they had many idols; but their principal deity was the goddess Cybele, who was represented by a woman sitting in a chariot, drawn by four lions, crowned with towers, holding a key in her hand, and attired with a garment embroidered with flowers of different colours.

The first king of Phrygia of whom we have any account, is Nannacus, who reigned before the flood; and the oracles unanimously predicted, that, when he should die, all things should perish. With many sighs and tears he strove to appease the wrath of the gods; but after his death ensued the deluge, which destroyed the human race.

Midas was succeeded by Gordius, who was raised from the plough to the throne. As he was following his usual avocation of tillage, an eagle settled on his plough, where it continued the whole day. When he entered the city, he met a beautiful young woman, who, on hearing what had happened, assured him that a kingdom was presaged by the oracle, and proposed to marry him. Soon after, a sedition breaking out, the oracles advised the Phrygians to commit their government to a king, and observed, that the first man who, after the ambassador's return, should visit, in a cart, the temple of Jupiter, was destined by the gods to wear the diadem. Gordius immediately appeared riding in his cart, and was proclaimed king of Phrygia. Grateful for so signal a favour, he consecrated his cart to the goddess, called Regal Majesty; and to its beam fastened a knot, which was so artfully woven, that the oracle promised the empire of the world to him who should untie it. Alexander the Great cut it with his sword, and thus fulfilled or eluded the prediction.

Gordius was succeeded by his son Midas, respecting whom the oracle uttered a prediction, in consequence of a swarm of ants conveying their stores of wheat into his mouth while he was sleeping. "He shall acquire immense riches," said the oracle; and the prophecy was verified.

Some other kings are mentioned, of whom nothing is related very deserving of notice. Cræsus, king of Lydia, subdued Phrygia, and held it as a province, till he was conquered by the resistless arms of Cyrus the Great.

Questions on the History of the Phrygians.

Where was Phrygia Proper situated, and how was it bounded?

From whom were the Phrygians descended, and what was their character? What were their music and commerce? In what sciences did they possess a competent skill? What were their idols?

Who was Nannacus, and what did the oracles predict would happen at his death?

By whom was Midas succeeded, and how was Gordius raised to the throne? What did Gordius consecrate in token of gratitude? What did the oracle promise to him who should untie the knot of Gordius, and who fulfilled or eluded the prediction?

What did the oracle predict respecting Midas?

What other kings succeeded, and by whom was Phrygia subdued?

TROJANS.

THE inhabitants of Phrygia Minor, called Trojans, from Troy, the metropolis of their country, were indisputably a very ancient people. Their trade was very flourishing; and they rose to a considerable pitch of splendour and magnificence. Their religion* differed little from that of the inhabitants of Phrygia Major.

Teucer is commonly supposed to be the founder of the Trojan monarchy. He was succeeded by his son-in-law, Dardanus, who extended the boundaries of his kingdom, and enacted many salutary laws.

Dardanus was succeeded by his son Erichthonius, who inherited the virtues and the happiness of his father.

Tros, the son and successor of Erichthonius, was the father of Ganymedes, who, having occasion to pass through the territories of Tantalus, king of Sipylus, was detained by him, and so brutally treated, that he died. From this prince Phrygia Minor was denominated Troas; and its metropolis, Troy. Tros was succeeded by his son Ilus, who devoted the whole of his time to the improvement of his territories, the emendation of his laws, and the felicity of his people. His son and successor, Laomedon, built a citadel with the treasures that were deposited in the temples of Neptune and Apollo. His inhospitable treatment of Jason and the other Argonauts occasioned a war, which terminated in his own death, and the reduction of his metropolis.

In the reign of Priam, happened the memorable war between the Greeks and the Trojans. The cause of this unhappy contest was the rape of Helen. The Greeks employed in this expedition upwards of a thousand ships; and all the powers of Greece, except the Acarnanes, were engaged in the war. The city of Troy held out against these forces for ten years; but besides the Trojans, the Greeks had to contend with many other enemies, for all Phrygia, Mysia, Lycia, and the greatest part of Asia Minor, espoused the cause of the besieged; and even the Thracians and Ethiopians rendered them assistance. At length, the Greeks

* Their principal deities were *Cybele*, who was worshipped chiefly upon the hills of *Ida*; *Apollo*, who had a temple in the citadel of *Troy*; and *Pallas*, whose famous statue was privately stolen by *Ulysses*. *Venus* was also one of their idols, and in the city of *Amazeto*, was a temple to the *Smoothum Apollo*.

carried the city, and practised all the cruelties which a barbarous and an implacable enemy could have invented. Neither the silver hairs of the aged, the passionate entreaties of distressed beauty, nor the alluring softness of infantile innocence, turned aside the devouring sword. Slaughter and devastation raged through the ill-fated city; and those noble edifices, which had lately been the admiration of Asia, were consigned to the flames. Thus perished the kingdom of Troy, after subsisting, from Teucer to Priam, two hundred and ninety-six years.

Questions on the History of the Trojans.

Who were the Trojans? What was their trade? What was their religion, and what were their principal deities?

Who was the supposed founder of the Trojan monarchy, and by whom was he succeeded?

What did Erichthonius inherit?

Of whom was Iros the father? To what did he give his name? To what did his successor devote his time? What did Laomedon build, and what did his treatment of Jason and the other Argonauts occasion?

What happened in the reign of Priam, and what were the cause and issue of the war? When was Troy taken, and how did the Greeks treat that ill-fated city? How long subsisted the kingdom of Troy?

MYSIANS.

THIS country was divided into the Greater and Lesser Mysia, and was anciently deemed the finest and most fruitful part of Asia. Mysia Major was bounded on the north by Troas, on the east by Phrygia, on the south by Æolia, and on the west by the Ægean Sea. Mysia Minor lay on the Propontis, and thence extended to Mount Olympus: it was bounded on the north and west by the Propontis and Bithynia; on the east by Phrygia Major; and on the south by Troas.

The religion of the Mysians was nearly similar to that of the neighbouring Phrygians, and their language was the same, with some variation of dialect. Pergamus, the chief city of Mysia Major, was enriched with a library, containing two hundred choice manuscripts, for the transcribing of which parchment was here first invented, and called by the Latins *charta Pergamena*, *the paper of Pergamus*. Here also were invented

those costly hangings known by the name of tapestry. In the city of Lampsacus, in Mysia Minor, Priapus, the most infamous of all the heathen deities, was worshipped in a particular manner, and his temple was a perfect sink of lewdness.

Questions on the History of the Mysians.

How was Mysia divided? By what was Mysia Major bounded? Where was Mysia Minor, and how was it bounded?

What were the religion and language of the Mysians? With what was the city of Pergamus embellished, and why was parchment called *charta Pergamena*, the paper of Pergamus, by the Latins? What were also invented at Pergamus? What deity was worshipped at Lampsacus?

LYDIANS.

LYDIA, according to Ptolemy, and other ancient geographers, was situated between the thirty-seventh and thirty-ninth degrees of north latitude; being bounded by Mysia Major on the north, by Phrygia on the east, by Caria on the south, and Ionia on the west. It was extremely fruitful in corn, wine, and other useful commodities, and was enriched with many valuable mines, whence Cræsus is said to have drawn his immense wealth. The metropolis was Sardis, which was pleasantly situated on the banks of the Pactolus.

The Lydians were once a warlike people; but after the introduction of the Persian luxuries, they became indolent, voluptuous, and effeminate. They were the first that coined gold and silver; that kept taverns and eating-houses; and that invented public games, which were therefore called by the Romans *ludi*. Their religion resembled that of the Phrygians.

Historians mention three distinct races of Lydian monarchs: the *Atyadæ*, so called from Atys, the grandson of Masnes; the *Heraclidæ*, or descendants of Hercules; and the *Mermnadæ*, who were also, properly speaking, Heraclidæ, being descended from one Lemnos, or Agelaus, the son of Hercules by Omphale.

(B. C. 680.) Candaules, the last king of the second race, imprudently extolled the charms of his queen to Gyges, his favourite minister, whom he placed in the porch of her

chamber, that he might see her undress when she went to bed. The minister, however, was discovered by the queen, who informed him, that he must either expiate his crime by his own death, or murder Candaules, the contriver of it, and receive both her and the kingdom for his reward. Gyges accordingly stabbed his master whilst asleep, married the queen, and ascended the throne.

Crœsus, the son and successor of Alyattes, extended his conquests so successfully, that his kingdom became equally respectable with those of Media, Babylon, and Egypt. Having invited to his court Solon, the Athenian legislator, the Lydian monarch displayed before him the magnificence of the royal treasury, and asked him who was the happiest man that he had ever known, expecting that he would give the preference to him. But Solon replied, Tellus, a virtuous Athenian, who lost his life in the service of his country; and gave the king to understand, that it was impossible to judge of the happiness of any man before his death.

When Cyrus was extending his conquests over all Asia, Crœsus determined to oppose him; and, marching against the Persians, was defeated, taken prisoner, loaded with chains, and condemned to perish in the flames. As he mounted the pile, he frequently exclaimed, "Ah! Solon! Solon!" Cyrus being informed of this exclamation, and of the lesson which Crœsus had received from the Athenian legislator, pardoned the unfortunate monarch, in consideration of the instability of all human happiness. With Crœsus ended the empire of the Lydians.

Questions on the History of the Lydians.

How was Lydia situated, and by what bounded? What was its fertility? Which was the capital?

What was the character of the Lydians? What did they first use and invent, and why were public games called *ludi* by the Romans? What was their religion?

How many races of Lydian monarchs were there?

What was the fate of Candaules, the last king of the second race, and what the occasion of his death?

How did Crœsus extend his conquests, and what was the nature of the conference between him and Solon?

Whom did Crœsus oppose, and what was the consequence? For what reason did Cyrus pardon Crœsus? With whom ended the empire of the Lydians?

LYCIANS.

THIS country was situated between the thirty-sixth and thirty-eighth degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by Phrygia Major, on the east by Pamphylia, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Caria. The soil was very fertile, the water pure, and the air salubrious.

The Lycians were once a very powerful and warlike people, and are highly commended for their temperance, and mode of administering justice. They were first subjugated by Cræsus, and afterwards by Cyrus. Instead, however, of following the example of their neighbours by a voluntary submission, the natives of Xanthus attacked, with a handful of men, the numerous and victorious army of the Persians; but, finding themselves overpowered by numbers, they retired into their city; and, having set fire to the castle, in which were their families and riches, they returned to the engagement, and were all cut to pieces. Only three kings of all Lycia are noticed in history: Amisodarus, who is fabled to have nourished the monster Chimæra; Jobates, who gave his daughter in marriage to Prætus, king of the Argives; and Cyberniscus, who served as an admiral in the Persian fleet, in the expedition of Xerxes against Greece.

Questions on the History of the Lycians.

Where was Lycia situated, and how bounded? What was the nature of its soil and climate?

What was the character of the Lycians? By whom were they subjugated? What was the conduct of the natives of Xanthus, and what was their fate? How many kings of Lycia are noticed in history?

CILICIANS.

CILICIA derived its name from Cilix, the son of Agenor, who formed a settlement in this country, and was situated between the thirty-sixth and fortieth degrees of north latitude: it was bounded on the east by Mount Amanus; on the north by Isauria, Cappadocia, and Armenia Minor; on the west by Pamphylia; and on the south by the Mediterranean. The whole country was anciently divided

into Cilicia Aspera, and Cilicia Campestris. That part called Cilicia Campestris, was one of the most fertile tracts in Asia; but the western division was remarkably steril.

The ancient Cilicians were a rough unpolished race, whose treachery, injustice, and cruelty, were proverbial, and who, in the time of the Romans, subsisted chiefly by piracy. Before they settled in this country, they were governed by their own princes, and divided into the Theban and the Lyrnessian kingdoms. On the extinction of the Persian empire, Cilicia became a Macedonian province; after the death of Alexander, it was subject to the Seleucidæ; and Pompey annexed it to the Roman empire.

Questions on the History of the Cilicians.

From whom did Cilicia derive its name, where was it situated, how bounded, and how anciently divided? In what did Cilicia Campestris differ from the western division?

What was the character of the ancient Cilicians, and how were they governed, previously to their settlement in this country? What was the fate of Cilicia, and who annexed it to the Roman empire?

ARMENIA.

ARMENIA MAJOR was bounded on the north by Iberia and Albania; on the east by Media; on the south by Mount Taurus; and on the west by the mountains Paryadres, some Pontic nations, and the Euphrates. It was agreeably diversified with hills and vallies; but produced scanty crops of corn, wine, &c. which were also extremely bad. The religion of the Armenians resembled that of the Medes and Persians, with some trifling variations; but their principal deity was the goddess Tanais, to whom several magnificent temples were consecrated. Their language was similar to that of the Syrians; at least, they used the Syriac characters.

Armenia was subject to the successors of Alexander, king of Macedon. During the minority of Antiochus the Great, Artaxias and Zadriades, governors of Armenia, revolting from their allegiance, caused themselves to be proclaimed kings of the provinces under their jurisdiction. The troops of Antiochus being fully employed in another

quarter, this daring rebellion was crowned with extraordinary success; and Armenia, from a small province, soon became a considerable kingdom in wealth, power, and extent. Having thus effected their ambitious purpose, the conquerors divided their territories into two kingdoms, of which the greater was governed by Artaxias, under the name of Armenia Major, and the lesser by Zadriades, under the appellation of Armenia Minor.

Antiochus, being informed of these proceedings, sent a powerful army against the usurpers; but his attempts were all defeated, and he was compelled to conclude a peace; whilst his successful opponents entered into an alliance with the Romans, and thus secured their new kingdoms to themselves and their descendants.

(B. C. 95.) Tigranes had scarcely ascended the throne of his ancestors, when he was prevailed on by Mithridates Eupator, king of Pontus, to engage in a conspiracy against the Romans, and married his daughter Cleopatra. Tigranes sent a powerful army against Cappadocia, which the Roman senate had recently conferred on Ariobarzanes, drove the reigning prince from the throne, and bestowed the crown upon Ariarathes, son of Mithridates. In the meantime, the Syrians, being harassed by the perpetual contentions of the Seleucidæ, invited Tigranes to take possession of their throne, which he ascended with the unanimous suffrage of the people. His ambitious spirit being inflamed by this new addition of strength, he led his victorious army into Armenia Minor, which he reduced in one campaign; marched against the Asiatic Greeks, whom he compelled to acknowledge him as their sovereign; and invaded Cappadocia a second time, and brought back three hundred thousand prisoners, whom he employed in building a city, which he denominated after his own name Tigranocerta. He also added all Mesopotamia, the fertile province of Mygdonia, and the important city of Nisibis, to the crown of Armenia; and elated with his victories, he soon after assumed the title of "King of Kings."

Mithridates, in consequence of a signal victory obtained over him by the Romans, fled from Pontus to the court of his son-in-law, and though Tigranes refused to see and acknowledge him for a relation, he would not deliver him into the hands of his enemies. Upon which Lucullus, the Roman general, immediately invaded Armenia; and from *that moment*, Tigranes was not the same person who had

subdued empires. Though the army of Tigranes was strengthened by the troops of several neighbouring nations, yet the Romans attacked the Armenians with irresistible fury, and routed them with a great slaughter. Tigranes quitted the field in the beginning of the engagement, and took refuge with a small body of cavalry, in one of his castles. Such was the great disparity of numbers on this occasion, that Livy observes, the conquerors did not equal the twentieth part of the vanquished.

Other engagements followed, in all of which the troops of Tigranes were defeated and put to the rout. At length, young Tigranes, prince of Armenia, revolted against his father, and went over to Pompey, who had assumed the command of the Roman legions. The unfortunate Tigranes, therefore, formed the resolution of delivering himself into the hands of the Romans, and of trusting to their generosity. As he entered the works of the enemy, two lictors informed him that he must dismount from his horse, no person being allowed to visit a Roman camp on horseback. As soon as Pompey appeared, he laid aside his diadem, and threw himself at his feet; but the Roman general raising him from that humiliating posture, put the crown again upon his head, and conducted him to his tent. Next day, the conqueror restored to Tigranes the kingdom of Armenia with the greatest part of Mesopotamia, and invested his son with the government of the provinces of Gordyene and Sophene. This arrangement, however, displeasing the young prince, he solicited the inhabitants of Sophene to withhold the royal treasures, which the Roman general had adjudged to his father. Pompey, therefore, loaded him with chains, and sent him to Rome.

Tigranes the Elder, being restored to his paternal kingdom, cheerfully yielded the provinces of Syria, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, to the Romans, and was designated by the title of ally of the Roman republic. He considered himself bound to maintain a strict friendship with the Romans, and not only refused to succour Mithridates, after that monarch had been defeated by Pompey, but even offered a reward to any one who should put him to death. Tigranes died in the eighty-fifth year of his age, and left the crown of Armenia to his son Artuades.

(B. C. 37.) Artuades no sooner assumed the reins of government, than he projected the subjugation of Media, and advised Marc Antony to invade that country, offering

to conduct him thither in person, and to assist him with all his forces. Antony readily embraced this proposal; but the Armenian, being privately reconciled to the king of Media, led the Romans over such steep mountains, and through such bad roads, that they were obliged to leave most of their baggage and warlike engines behind. This treachery being discovered, Artuasdes was loaded with chains, stripped of his treasures, and reserved to grace the triumph of Marc Antony at Alexandria.

(B. C. 32.) The Armenians placed the crown on the head of his eldest son, Artaxias; but the Romans drove him from the throne, and bestowed the sovereignty on Tigranes, a younger brother. After the demise of Tigranes and his sons, Augustus conferred the Armenian crown on Artuasdes, supposed to have been the son of Artaxias II. On the death of Artuasdes, Ariobarzanes, a Mede, was invested with the government, at the request of the Armenians.

This country was afterwards subdued by the Parthians, in opposition to whom, Tiberius supported Mithridates Iberus, brother to Pharasmenes, king of Iberia. Mithridates, with the assistance of the Romans, triumphed over the Parthians; but his brother, Pharasmenes, sent his son, at the head of a powerful army, to invade Armenia. This unexpected irruption, and the defection of several Armenian nobles, induced the king to shut himself up in the castle of Gorneas, which was defended by a Roman garrison. The unfortunate monarch, however, was betrayed by the governor into the hands of his iniquitous nephew, Rhadamistus, who caused him to be put to death, together with his unoffending children.

Rhadamistus, having cut off the whole family of Mithridates, took possession of the throne of Armenia; but Tiridates, brother to Vologeses, king of Parthia, resolving to assert the ancient right of his family to the usurped kingdom, marched a powerful army into Armenia, and compelled the regicide to retire to the extremity of the country. The severity of the weather, and a great scarcity of provisions, obliged the Parthians to abandon their enterprise, and enabled Rhadamistus to recover his territories. But a conspiracy of the nobles was formed against the usurper, who after his return had committed many acts of tyranny, and who, with his wife Zenobia, made his escape on horseback. Zenobia, however, being pregnant, and unable to keep

up with her husband, earnestly entreated him to deliver her, by an honourable death, from the horrors of captivity. After some delay, he consented, and wounding her desperately with his scimitar, threw her body into the Araxes. She was found by some shepherds, who, observing manifest signs of life, bound up her wound, and carried her to Artaxata, whence she was sent to Tiridates, who received her with the respect due to her situation and misfortunes.

The Armenians being continually harassed, and kept in a state of perpetual alarm, applied to the emperor Nero, who, after the country had been subdued by his generals, and Tiridates driven from the throne, bestowed the sovereignty on Tigranes, grandson of Herod the Great. After the death of Tigranes, Tiridates had the address to induce Nero to restore to him the diadem, which he and his successors possessed as homagers to the Roman empire.

In the reign of Trajan, the ancient kingdom of Armenia was reduced to the form of a Roman province; but it soon recovered its liberty, and was governed by its own kings in the reign of Constantine the Great. It was conquered by the Saracens; then by the Turks, who denominated the country Turcomania; afterwards by Occadan, first Cham of the Tartars. None of these conquests, however, extirpated the race of Armenian kings.

ARMENIA MINOR, which before the revolt of Zadriades and Artaxias, constituted part of Cappadocia, was bounded on the east by the Euphrates, on the south by Mount Taurus, and on the west and north by a long chain of mountains, called Mons Scordiscus, Amanus, and Antitaurus. The valleys of this country are crowned with grapes and olives equal in quality to those of Greece.

Zadriades maintained his usurped honours by forming a strict alliance with the Roman republic. Artanes, the last male of this race, was slain in battle by Tigranes, the First, king of Armenia Major, whom the Romans expelled from his country, and bestowed the crown upon Dejotarus*, tetrarch of Galatia. In the civil war, this prince espoused the cause of Pompey, but after the battle of Pharsalia was generously pardoned by Julius Cæsar. On the demise of Dejotarus II., who had been educated by

* Of this prince Pompey used to say, that of all the friends of Rome, Dejotarus was the most hearty, of all its allies the most sincere, and the only one on whom the republic could place an entire dependance.

Cato, and enjoyed the unreserved friendship of Cicero, his family became extinct, and the kingdom was given, first to Artuasdēs, king of Media, and then to Polemon, king of Pontus. It was afterwards successively governed by Archelaus, of Cappadocia; Cotys, of Bosphorus; Aristobulus, great grandson to Herod the Great; and Tigranes, his near relation. Armenia Minor was reduced to a Roman province by Vespasian; and on the division of the empire, it was subjected to the emperors of the East. It was afterwards successfully invaded by the Persians, and at length became a prey to the Turks, who still retain it under the name of Genech.

Questions on the History of Armenia.

How was Armenia Major bounded, and what was the nature of the country? What was the religion of the Armenians, and what their language?

To whom was Armenia subject? When, and in what manner, did Artaxias and Zabriades obtain possession of this country? How did the conquerors divide their territories?

Were the efforts of Antiochus successful against the usurpers? By whom was Tigranes induced to engage in a confederacy against the Romans? What was the success of his expedition against Cappadocia, and how did he obtain the throne of Syria? What country did he reduce in one campaign, whom did he compel to acknowledge him as their sovereign, and what was the success of his second invasion of Cappadocia? What did he also add to the crown of Armenia, and what title did he afterwards assume?

What was the consequence of Tigranes's refusal to deliver Mithridates into the hands of the Romans? What was the issue of the first engagement of the army of Tigranes with the Romans, and what was the disparity of numbers between the conquerors and the conquered?

What was the issue of other engagements, and what produced the resolution of Tigranes to deliver himself into the hands of the Romans? How did he conduct himself before Pompey, and what was his reception by the Roman general? Why was Tigranes the Younger loaded with chains and sent to Rome?

What countries did Tigranes the Elder yield to the Romans, and how was he designated by the Roman republic? Did he maintain a strict friendship with the Romans? At what age did he die, and to whom did he leave the crown of Armenia?

Whom did Artuasdēs persuade to invade Media? How did he deceive Marc Antony, and what was the consequence of his treachery?

To whom did the Armenians and the Romans now, successively, dispose of the crown?

By whom was this country afterwards subdued? Whom did the Romans support, and enable to triumph over the Parthians? Who invaded Armenia, and what was the fate of Mithridates Iberus and his children?

By whom was Rhadamistus compelled to retire to the extremity of the country? How did Rhadamistus recover his territories, and by what means was he again driven from the throne? What was the fate of his wife Zenobia?

By whom, on the application of the Armenians, was Tiridates driven from the throne, and on whom did Nero bestow the sovereignty? After the death of Tigranes, did Nero restore Tiridates, and how was the crown possessed by him and his successors?

When was the kingdom of Armenia reduced to a Roman province? Did it afterwards recover its liberty? By whom was it subsequently conquered?

How is Armenia Minor bounded? What do the valleys of this country produce?

How did Zadiades maintain his usurped honours? By whom was Artanes, the last male of this race, slain? After expelling Tigranes, on whom did the Romans bestow the crown, and what did Pompey say of him? For what was Dejotarus pardoned by Julius Cæsar? When did his family become extinct, and to whom was the kingdom given? By whom was this country afterwards governed? By whom was it reduced to a Roman province, and on the division of the Roman empire to whom was it subjected? To whom, at length, did it become a prey?

CAPPADOCIANS.

CAPPADOCIA, properly so called, is situated between the thirty-eighth and forty-first degrees of north latitude, and is bounded by Pontus on the north, by the Euphrates and part of Armenia Minor on the east, by Lycaonia on the south, and by Galatia on the west. Its productions are wines, several sorts of fruit, crystal, jasper, alabaster, and onyx stone. In ancient times, it abounded with mines of silver, brass, and iron, and was peculiarly famous for an excellent breed of horses.

The religion of the ancient Cappadocians was much the same as that of the Persians. Of their laws no system is extant; and we cannot speak with accuracy of their commerce.

The first king of Cappadocia was Pharnaces, who received the diadem, together with the princess Atossa, for having saved Cyrus the Great from a furious lion, which attacked him in hunting. The weakness of these monarchs rendered them an easy conquest; and on the irruption of the Macedonians, this country was changed into the form of a province. Ariarathes III., however, reinstated himself in the sovereignty, which he transmitted to his posterity. After having borne the yoke of the Persians, the petty kings of Cappadocia groaned under that of the Romans.

Ariarathes VI. assisted the Romans in a war against Aristonicus, and was slain in battle. He left six sons by his queen Laodice, who, dreading their authority, dispatched five of them by poison, and designed to exterminate the family, but the youngest was happily conveyed beyond the reach of her unnatural cruelty. This was Ariarathes VII., who, having espoused the daughter of Mithridates the Great, was poisoned by the order of that monarch. After the tragical end of Ariarathes VIII., who was basely assassinated by Mithridates at a conference held in sight of both the armies of Cappadocia and Pontus, the Romans were desirous of giving the Cappadocians a republican form of government, but at length allowed them to choose a king. Accordingly, they elected Ariobarzanes, who was an approved and a steady friend of the Roman republic. Archelaus was the last king of Cappadocia, and owed his elevation to the surprising beauty of his mother Glaphyra, who had captivated the heart of Marc Antony. In the reign of Tiberius, this prince was summoned before the senate, and, being falsely accused of several heinous crimes, fell a victim to unconquerable grief, and his kingdom was reduced to the form of a Roman province.

Questions on the History of the Cappadocians.

Where is Cappadocia situated, and how bounded? What are its productions, and with what did it anciently abound?

What were the religion, the laws, and the commerce of the Cappadocians?

On what account did Pharnaces receive the crown of Cappadocia? Was this country changed into the form of a province by the Macedonians? Did Ariarathes the Third reinstate himself in the sovereignty? Did the petty kings of Cappadocia groan under the yoke of Rome?

On the death of Ariarathes the Sixth, which of his children did his wife Laodice put to death? By whose order was Ariarathes the Seventh poisoned? What was the fate of Ariarathes the Eighth, and whom did the Cappadocians afterwards choose for their king? Who was the last king of Cappadocia, and to what cause did he owe his elevation? What was the fate of Archelaus, and of his kingdom?

PERGAMIANS.

THE kingdom of Pergamus received its denomination from a city in the province of Mysia, which was its capital,

and had never any certain or fixed limits. The Pergamian monarchs made a considerable figure among the princes of Asia, and were very serviceable to the Romans in all their Asiatic wars.

(B. C. 283.) The founder of the kingdom of Pergamus was Philetærus, a Paphlagonian eunuch, of mean descent, who seized on the castle of Pergamus, which had been committed to his care, by Lysimachus, king of Thrace, and appropriated to his own use the royal treasures which were there deposited. He was succeeded by his brother Eumenes, who, taking advantage of the dissensions which prevailed among the Seleucidæ, subdued a considerable part of Asia.

(B. C. 241.) On the demise of Eumenes, Attalus I. succeeded to the sovereignty, and assumed the title of king. He espoused the cause of Rome with uncommon vigour against Philip of Macedon, and died suddenly of an apoplexy. He was a generous patron of literature and learned men, and so great an admirer of Homer, that he ordered Daphidas, the grammarian, to be thrown headlong from a rock, for speaking disrespectfully of the poet. Attalus wrote several books, which are occasionally quoted by Strabo, Pliny, and Artemidorus.

(B. C. 198.) He was succeeded by his eldest son, Eumenes II., who renewed the alliance with Rome, and embraced every opportunity of signalizing himself on behalf of that republic. By his assistance, the Romans defeated Antiochus the Great at the battle of Magnesia, and therefore rewarded him by bestowing on him some of the provinces taken from that prince. Eumenes, however, was soon obliged to implore their assistance against Prusias, king of Bithynia, who, in concert with Hannibal, invaded his dominions, and defeated him in a naval engagement with considerable loss. The Romans immediately sent ambassadors, who effected a mediation between the contending monarchs. Eumenes having gone to Rome, to give some information against Perses, king of Macedonia, was attacked on his return by two assassins, whom Perses had hired for that purpose, and who wounded him dangerously in the head and shoulder with stones. He was carried to the island of Ægina, and his wounds being long in healing, he was supposed to be dead. Attalus, therefore, the brother of Eumenes, married his wife, and assumed the sovereignty. When the king arrived at his car only said to Attalus in a whisper, "Do not ag

haste to marry my queen, till you are certified of my death."

Instead of assisting the Romans against Perses, king of Macedon, Eumenes offered to stand neuter, if that prince would pay him a thousand talents, and also to procure Perses a peace from the Romans for fifteen hundred more. The Romans being informed of these proposals, were so exasperated, that they encouraged his brother Attalus to request the kingdom for himself, and enacted a law that Eumenes should be prevented from entering their capital. Alarmed at this extraordinary behaviour, the king sent his two brothers, Attalus and Athenæus, to plead his cause at Rome; but the senate were inflexible, and appeared obstinately bent on his destruction. Their designs, however, were frustrated by a fit of sickness, which put a period to the king's life, in the thirty-ninth year of his reign.

(B. C. 159.) Attalus II. had no sooner ascended the throne than he found himself at war with Prusias, king of Bithynia, who invaded his dominions, and made himself master of the royal city of Pergamus. The Romans, however, compelled the ambitious Bithynian to accept of peace on the mortifying conditions of giving Attalus twenty ships, of paying five hundred talents within the space of twenty years, and of resigning all his new acquisitions. Afterwards, Nicomedes, the son of Prusias, with the assistance of Attalus, made war upon his father, whom he chased from the throne, and, finally, caused to be put to death. On the termination of the war, Attalus returned to Pergamus, where he abandoned himself entirely to luxury and indolence; and Philopœmen, one of his ministers, governed both the king and kingdom at his own pleasure. On the death of Attalus, the crown devolved on the son of Eumenes.

(B. C. 138.) Attalus III. soon exhibited that cruel and tyrannical disposition, which proved the scourge of his people, and has stamped indelible infamy on his character. His nearest relatives and most faithful friends were inhumanly murdered, on the most frivolous pretences; the oldest and most judicious statesmen, with their wives and families, were put to death by hired assassins; and the whole kingdom was filled with carnage and desolation. The guilty king was then tormented with all the horrors of remorse, and in a fit of melancholy sequestered himself from all mankind. He clothed himself in mean apparel, neg-

lected his hair and beard, and cultivated a garden for the purpose of raising poisonous herbs. These he mingled with such as were wholesome, and sent packets of them to those persons who had unfortunately roused his suspicions. At length Attalus fell into a fever, of which he died.

This tyrant having by his will left all his effects to the Romans, the republic seized on his kingdom, and reduced it to a province, under the name of Asia Propria. However, Aristonicus, the next heir, boldly put in his claim to the crown, and with the assistance of the Pergamians, bravely contended with the Romans for some time; but at length the whole kingdom was reduced to the form of a prætorian province, and divided into several districts, each depending on the metropolis where the Roman prætor resided.

Questions on the History of the Pergamians.

From what did the kingdom of Pergamus receive its name, and what were its limits? How did the Pergamian monarchs appear among the princes of Asia?

Who was the founder of the kingdom of Pergamus, and on what did he seize? By whom was Philetærus succeeded?

On the demise of Eumenes, who assumed the title of king? Whose cause did Attalus the First espouse, and what was the character of Attalus? How did he vindicate the fame of Homer, and what books did he write?

By whom was Attalus succeeded, and what alliance did he renew? How did the Romans reward Eumenes the Second for his assistance? By whom was Eumenes defeated in a naval engagement, and how was a reconciliation effected? Where, and by whom, was Eumenes attacked and dangerously wounded, and whither was he carried? Who married the wife of Eumenes during his absence, and assumed the sovereignty? When Eumenes arrived at his capital, what did he say to his brother Attalus?

What exasperated the Romans against Eumenes, and whom did he send to plead his cause at Rome? Was the senate pacified, and how were its designs frustrated?

Under Attalus the Second, who made himself master of the royal city of Pergamus? On what conditions did the Romans compel Prusias, king of Bithynia, to accept of peace? Whom did Attalus the Second assist in dethroning his father, and what was the conduct of Attalus after his return to Pergamus?

What were the disposition and conduct of Attalus the Third? What was his subsequent remorse, and how was it shewn?

To whom did Attalus the Third leave his effects, and to what state did the Romans reduce his kingdom? What was the issue of the attempt of Aristonicus to obtain the crown?

THRACE.

THRACE was bounded by Mount Hæmus on the north; by the Euxine, the Hellespont, and the Propontis on the east; by the Ægean sea on the south; and by Macedon and the river Strymon on the west. In the interior of this country, the climate is cold, and the soil extremely barren; but the maritime provinces are remarkably pleasant, and abound with grain, fruits, and other necessities of life.

The Thracians were a brave and warlike people; but their minds were uncultured, and strongly tinged with cruelty. Their religion was the same as that of the Greeks; but they honoured, in a particular manner, Mars and Mercury, the gods of the brave and of thieves. When a child was born, the relations assembled, and deplored his ill fortune, in entering on the theatre of human trials and calamities; but when any one died, they committed him to the ground with great rejoicings, repeating the afflictions which he had exchanged for perfect felicity. In the mountainous parts of the country, every man had several wives, who, at his decease, contended for the honour of being sacrificed on, and deposited in the same grave with their husband. Children were frequently sold by their parents. Indolence was accounted a suitable appendage of greatness; agriculture was considered as altogether contemptible; and rapine and glory were synonymous terms.

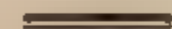
Though Thrace was sometimes called a kingdom, yet it was only an assemblage of petty states, independent of each other. Some of the princes united their neighbours under their sceptres, and assumed the diadem; but they rarely transmitted it to their posterity. Had these people been unanimous in their counsels, they might have become one of the most powerful nations on earth. Thrace was anciently divided into the Dolonci, Denseletæ, Bessi, Cicones, Edoni, Bistones, Odomantes, Brygi, Pieres, Odrysæ, Autonomi, Moedi, Crobyzi, Sapæi, and Celetæ. These successively fell under the dominion of the Romans. Linus and Orpheus, so highly celebrated by the ancient poets, were the sons of Oeager, a prince of the Pieres; and of this country, Democritus the philosopher, and Thucydides the historian, were natives.

Questions on the History of Thrace.

How was Thrace bounded, and what is the nature of its climate and soil?

What was the character of the Thracians? What was their religion? What was their conduct on the birth of a child, and the death of any one? In some parts, had each man more than one wife? How were children treated, and how were indolence and rapine estimated?

Was Thrace a kingdom, and how might the Thracians have become very powerful? Into what nations was Thrace anciently divided? Under whose dominion did they fall? Who were Linus and Orpheus? and who were natives of this country?



BITHYNIA.

THIS tract of country was situated between the forty-first and forty-third degrees of north latitude, and was bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea, on the east by the river Parthenius, on the south by Mount Olympus and the Rhyndacus, and on the west by the Bosphorus Thracius. It contained several handsome cities, was well watered, and abounded with most of the necessities of life; but the greatest part of its once fertile soil is now totally destitute of cultivation, and its largest cities are either laid in ruins, or dwindled into contemptible villages.

In the reign of Prusias, who is the first king of Bithynia noticed by historians, this country was invaded by Cræsus, king of Lydia. It was afterwards subjugated by the Persians, who retained it till the time of Alexander the Great; but the inhabitants were permitted to live under their ancient form of government.

We pass over several unimportant reigns, till we come to that of Prusias, who, during the Mithridatic war, professed a warm regard for the Romans; but he granted an asylum to Hannibal, their implacable enemy, and, at the instigation of that eminent commander, invaded the territories of the king of Pergamus. These proceedings having roused the jealousy of the Romans, they demanded Hannibal; and Prusias was at length obliged to execute the orders of the conscript fathers. The illustrious Carthaginian, however, having implored the gods to punish the perfidy of the king of Bithynia, immediately swallowed a deadly poison. Prusias afterwards assisted the Romans in the war against Perses, king of Macedon. Hostilities broke out between the king of Bithynia and Eumenes II..

king of Pergamus, which terminated in the destruction of the former. He was hateful to his subjects, and despicable to foreigners, on account of his cruelty, cowardice, and disgusting behaviour. His person was extremely deformed, and his mind depraved.

Prusias was succeeded by his son Nicomedes II., who was worthy of such a father, and who sacrificed all his brothers to his tyrannical ambition. On the demise of this prince, who was assassinated, Nicomedes III. ascended the throne. He was succeeded by his son Nicomedes IV., who bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, and immediately after whose death, Bithynia was reduced to a province of Rome.

Questions on the History of Bithynia.

Where was Bithynia situated, and how was it bounded? Describe its ancient and its present state.

Under what reign, and by whom, was this country invaded? By whom was it afterwards subjugated?

At whose instigation, and by whom, was the kingdom of Pergamus invaded? What was the conduct of Prusias to Hannibal? Whom did Prusias assist? What occasioned the destruction of Prusias, and what was the nature of his character and person?

By whom was Prusias succeeded, and what was his conduct? By whom was Nicomedes the Second succeeded? After whose death was Bithynia reduced to a Roman province?

PONTUS.

This country was situated between the forty-first and forty-third degrees of north latitude, and was bounded on the north by the Euxine sea, on the east by Colchis, on the south by Armenia Minor, and on the west by the river Halys. The air is very salubrious, the hills are generally covered with olive or cherry trees, and the plains produce exuberant crops of grain.

It is supposed, that the ancient inhabitants of Pontus were the descendants of Tubal, but in process of time they became blended with Cappadocians, Paphlagonians, and other foreign nations. They were celebrated for their extraordinary skill in working iron, and fabricating steel armour. Their chief objects of adoration were Ceres, Jupiter, and Neptune, to whom they offered burnt sacrifices.

They also, occasionally, offered four white horses to Neptune causing them to advance with a chariot into the sea, till they were drowned.

Pontus, and all the countries bordering on the Euxine sea, were successively subdued by the Medes and Persians, the latter of whom erected Pontus, which had hitherto been a part of Cappadocia, into a kingdom, and bestowed the sovereignty on Artabazes, of the royal family of Persia, in the reign of Darius, the son of Hystaspes. From this period, the kings of Pontus were feudatories to the Persian empire till the reign of Ariobarzanes, who shook off the yoke, and greatly extended his dominions; and some of the succeeding princes added all Cappadocia, Paphlagonia, and great part of Colchis and Bithynia, to their territories.

(B. C. 182.) Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates V., no sooner ascended the throne than he took the city of Sinope by assault, and attacked the territories of Eumenes, king of Pergamus. These proceedings occasioned a war with the Roman republic, in which his dominions were invaded, and he was compelled to make peace on very disadvantageous terms. He was succeeded by his son Mithridates VI., who entered into a strict alliance with the Romans, for whom he performed some important services, and who bestowed on him Phrygia Major.

(B. C. 124.) On his demise, his son, Mithridates VII., assumed the regal authority, at the age of eleven years. He commenced his reign with the most inhuman and unnatural acts of cruelty. That he might inure himself to hardship, he spent a great portion of his time in the exercise of hunting, passing whole months in the open fields, and frequently reposing amidst the frozen snow. He armed himself against deleterious potions, with such powerful antidotes and preservatives, that, in the latter part of his life, the most exquisite poisons rather nourished than destroyed the constitution of his body. Having arrived at years of maturity, his thoughts aspired to the absolute empire of all Asia; and he made a progress through all the kingdoms of the eastern continent, that he might observe the customs, laws, and manners of the inhabitants.

Shortly after, he resolved to reduce his ambitious projects to execution, and invaded the neighbouring kingdom of Paphlagonia, which he divided with his friend Nicomedes, of Bithynia. He also annexed to this conquest the country of Galatia, which was under the protection of the

Roman republic. He entered Cappadocia at the head of a formidable army, and by treachery astonished and awed the Cappadocians, over whom he placed his son, a child of eight years old, under the tutelage of Gordius, one of his creatures.

(B. C. 91.) The growing power of the king of Pontus excited such jealousy in the breasts of the Romans, that they sent L. Cornelius Sylla into Cappadocia, to thwart his measures. At length, war was formally declared between the Romans and Mithridates (B. C. 89). The king of Pontus, however, having persuaded many of the neighbouring nations to enlist under his standard, boldly attacked the enemy, soon drove the Romans out of Asia, and over-ran Phrygia, Mysia, Caria, Lycia, and the adjacent countries. The free cities of Asia threw open their gates, and, by voluntary submissions, escaped the fate of those who had opposed his progress (B. C. 88). Mithridates took ample, though diabolical, revenge on the Romans, of whom one hundred and fifty thousand, including women and children, were murdered in Asia in one day. Archelaus, commander in chief of his army, made a successful incursion into Greece; and the prince Ariarathes reduced the kingdom of Macedon. Other generals were equally successful, and Mithridates soon became master, not only of Asia, but of all Greece and the neighbouring islands, except Rhodes, as far as the Cyclades.

These successes were, at length, checked by the Romans, who, hearing that the king of Pontus had projected an invasion of Italy, sent Lucius Sylla, a brave and experienced commander, into Greece. The armies of Sylla and Archelaus engaged, and the latter was defeated with the loss of one hundred and ten thousand men. At length, Mithridates concluded a peace with Sylla, and consented to relinquish all his conquests, and confine himself within the boundaries of Pontus, to release all who had been taken captive during the war, and to deliver up to the Roman general eighty ships, with their arms and ammunition, five hundred archers, and two thousand talents. Thus terminated the first Mithridatic war (B. C. 85).

This peace was merely a truce. The king of Pontus made some expeditions against the Bosphori, in which he was successful. This, and the death of Sylla, induced him to attempt the recovery of the countries which he had

been compelled to cede to the Romans. Accordingly, he invaded Paphlagonia, Bithynia, and the provinces of Asia; and Tigranes, king of Armenia, attacked Cappadocia. The Roman senate, on hearing of these transactions, dispatched the consul Lucullus into Asia, and entrusted Cotta, the other consul, with a fleet to guard the Propontis and Bithynia.

Mithridates having defeated the Romans with great slaughter by land, ordered his admiral to sail into the harbour, and destroy the fleet of Cotta, which was immediately performed. The loss of the Romans on this occasion was very considerable. Plutarch says, that four thousand Roman infantry were slain in the land engagement, and that few of the mariners were saved. Fortune, however, now declared in favour of Lucullus, who compelled the king of Pontus to raise the siege of Cyzicum, and putting to sea, gained an important victory over the fleet of Mithridates near the island of Lemnos. He then subdued Bithynia and Paphlagonia, and, entering the fertile plains of Pontus, invested Eupatoria, Themiscyra, and Amisus, three towns of great importance. But before the last of them surrendered, Mithridates advanced against him, and an engagement ensued, in which the king of Pontus proved victorious. He was, however, soon after defeated with great loss, deserted by his army, and compelled to retire with a small retinue to the court of Tigranes, king of Armenia.

Lucullus reduced all Pontus, and sent to inform Tigranes, that if he did not deliver up Mithridates, he would declare war against Armenia. This embassy proving unsuccessful, an engagement took place between Lucullus and the Armenians, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss (B. C. 70). Mithridates, however, encouraged his ally to levy a fresh army, and acted with such vigilance, that, during the absence of Lucullus, he defeated the Romans in several engagements, and expected to drive them effectually out of Pontus.

(B. C. 67.) Pompey being appointed to the command of the Roman army, sent proposals of peace to Mithridates, which the king of Pontus not only rejected, but was persuaded, by the deserters in his army, to swear that he would never form any alliance with Rome. Two battles enabled the Roman general to disconcert all the plans of Mithridates, whom Pompey expelled from the kingdom of

Pontus. He also reduced all the fortresses that were still garrisoned by the king's troops, and possessed himself of immense treasure in gold, silver, and other valuables.

Having completed the conquest of Pontus, Pompey marched his troops into Syria; but no sooner was he withdrawn, than Mithridates, who had lain concealed in the territories of a Scythian prince, re-appeared in his kingdom, and assembled all his subjects capable of bearing arms. However, the affairs of the king of Pontus were soon perplexed by a public rebellion; and he was deserted by those in whom he had placed the most implicit confidence. At length, he adopted the resolution of marching through Bosphorus Cimmerius, Scythia, and Pannonia, and of invading Italy, with the assistance of the European Gauls, who were then at war with the Romans. But while the army lay encamped at Bosphorus Cimmerius, Pharnaces, the king's favourite son, formed a powerful faction among the soldiers, who, on his offering to lead them back into Pontus, proclaimed him king with loud and repeated acclamations. When Mithridates was informed of this alarming rebellion, he went to appease the tumult; but this measure proving ineffectual, he endeavoured to excite the compassion of his son. Finding all means ineffectual, the wretched monarch besought the gods, that his unfeeling son might, on some future occasion, know the exquisite pangs which must rend a parent's heart, on seeing his warmest affection and solicitude requited with such unnatural ingratitude. He then withdrew into the apartment of his women, where he drank poison, and administered the same to his wives, concubines, and favourite daughters. The deleterious potion, however, wrought not its intended effect on him; and the king, after wounding himself with his sword, was killed by a Gaulish soldier. Such was the end of Mithridates, who subdued twenty-four nations, and could speak their languages as fluently as his own. He possessed a competent knowledge of physic, and wrote in the Greek tongue a learned treatise on botany. He is to be admired, however, for the equanimity with which he bore many of his misfortunes, rather than for his numerous victories or extraordinary learning.

Pharnaces presented the body of his father to Pompey; and having received the crown of Bosphorus from the conqueror, together with the appellation of "an ally of Rome," he ordered all the commanders in Pontus to surrender

their castles and treasures to the Roman general, who thus acquired immense wealth. Pharnaces, however, took advantage of the civil dissensions at Rome, to obtain possession of Armenia and Cappadocia. He was, therefore, attacked by Julius Cæsar, who defeated him, and who in writing to his friends said, "I came, I saw, I conquered." Pharnaces was afterwards killed in an engagement with Asander, whom the Romans had invested with his kingdom.

On the death of this unworthy prince, Pontus was again provinciated. During the second triumvirate, Marc Antony bestowed it on Darius, the son of Pharnaces, who was succeeded by Polemon, the son of a Laodicean orator, called Zeno. Polemon II., son of the last prince, was raised to the sovereignty on the demise of his father; but he dying without issue, the kingdom of Pontus was dismembered, and added to the provinces of Galatia, Bithynia, and Cappadocia. Alexius Comnenus erected the empire of Trapezond, which included a great part of this country; and about two hundred and fifty years after, David Comnenus was taken prisoner by Mahomet II., and his empire subjected to that of Constantinople.

Questions on the History of Pontus.

Where was Pontus situated, and by what bounded? What is the nature of the air and the soil?

Who were the ancient inhabitants of Pontus? For what were they celebrated, and what were the objects of their adoration?

By whom was Pontus successively subdued, and by whom raised into a kingdom? Who shook off the Persian yoke, and greatly extended his dominions?

What was the conduct of Pharnaces, on ascending the throne? What were the occasion and the issue of a war with the Romans? By whom was Pharnaces succeeded, and into what alliance did he enter?

By whom was Mithridates the Sixth succeeded? How did Mithridates the Seventh commence his reign? What were his conduct, and the means which he used against deleterious potions? Did he aspire to the empire of all Asia? What countries did he invade, and annex to his conquests?

What induced the Romans to declare war against Mithridates the Seventh? What countries did that monarch over-run, and what revenge did he take on the Romans? Of what countries did Mithridates soon become master?

By whom were the successes of Mithridates checked? What was the nature of the peace which Mithridates concluded with Sylla, and how ended the first Mithridatic war?

How came hostilities between Mithridates and the Romans to be re-commenced, and whom did the senate send to oppose him?

What was the extent of the victory obtained by Mithridates over the Romans? Did fortune now declare in favour of the Romans, and what countries and cities were subdued by Lucullus? Whither was Mithridates compelled to retire?

Why did Lucullus threaten war against Armenia? To what extent was Mithridates successful against the Romans?

When Pompey offered terms of peace, what was the conduct of Mithridates? What was Pompey's success in Pontus?

When Pompey marched into Syria, what plan did Mithridates adopt, and by what means were his affairs perplexed? How did Mithridates propose to invade Italy, and how was the project defeated? What did he beseech the gods respecting his son? By what death died Mithridates? How many nations did he subdue, and what were his character and acquirements?

What was the conduct of Pharnaces towards Pompey? How came the Romans to attack Pharnaces, and what was the expression used by Julius Cæsar on writing of his victory? What was the fate of Pharnaces?

When was Pontus again provinciated? On whom was it bestowed by Marc Antony? After whose death was Pontus dismembered? Did the empire of Trapezond include a great part of this country, and was that empire subjected to the empire of Constantinople?

COLCHIS.

Colchis, which is now called Mingrelia, was bounded by Mount Caucasus on the north; by Iberia on the east; by Armenia and part of Pontus on the south; and by the Euxine Sea on the west. This kingdom was anciently blest with abundant fertility, and contained many excellent mines of gold, which gave rise to the celebrated fable of the golden fleece, and the Argonautic expedition. The Colchians are supposed to have descended from the Egyptians; and they were governed by their own kings. In the reign of the emperor Trajan, they voluntarily submitted to the Roman authority; but as their country was never reduced to the form of a Roman province, they probably retained their ancient form of government.

Questions on the History of Colchis.

How was Colchis bounded? With what was it anciently blest? and what gave rise to the fable of the golden fleece, and the Argonautic expedition? From whom are the Colchians supposed to have descended, and how were they governed? When did they voluntarily submit to the Romans?

IBERIA.

IBERIA, which is now distinguished by the name of Georgia, was bounded on the north by Mount Caucasus, on the east by Albania, on the south by Armenia, and on the west by Colchis. The ancient inhabitants are supposed to have been descended from Tubal, the brother of Gomer. They were a very brave and warlike people, who maintained their independence against the utmost exertions of the Medes, Persians, and Macedonians, and even combated the Romans with astonishing fortitude and resolution. Those who inhabited the champaign country were industrious, and much addicted to agriculture, and bore a strong resemblance in dress to the Medes and Armenians; but those inhabiting the mountains were wild and savage, and might be aptly compared to the Scythians and Sarmatians. Their form of government was monarchical; and after they were subdued by the Romans, they were ruled by their own kings, who were tributary to Rome. Iberia is now subject to the king of Persia, and is known by the name of Gurgistan, or the land of the Georgians.

Questions on the History of Iberia.

How was Iberia bounded, and from whom are the ancient inhabitants supposed to have been descended? What was the character of the inhabitants, and against whom did they maintain their independence? What was their domestic character, and form of government? After being subdued by the Romans, how were they ruled? By what name is Iberia now known?

ALBANIA.

THE pleasant and fertile tract of country, which the ancients designated by the name of Albania, and which is now known by the names of Schirwan and East Georgia, was bounded by Mount Caucasus on the north, by the Caspian Sea on the east, by Armenia on the south, and by Iberia on the west. The ancient inhabitants were a tall, comely, and vigorous race, equally famous for their courage and simplicity. They were totally unacquainted with weights, measures, and the use of money, and carried on trade entirely by exchange. In the most early

ages, the country was divided into several petty kingdoms, which were afterwards united into one sovereignty. In the reign of Justinian II., Albania was reduced by the Romans.

Questions on the History of Albania.

How was Albania bounded, and by what names is it now known? What was the character of the ancient inhabitants, and in what manner did they carry on trade? How was the country very anciently divided, and when was Albania reduced by the Romans?

BOSPORUS.

THIS ancient kingdom, which included all the provinces subject to the Bosporean princes, was bounded on the north by the Tanais, on the east by Colchis, on the south by the Euxine Sea, and on the west by the Gulf of Carcinites. It therefore comprised the Chersonesus Taurica in Europe, and the extensive tract which lies between the Euxine Sea and the Palus Mæotis in Asia.

From the earliest ages, the Bosporani lived under a monarchical government. This country passed from the hands of its kings to the Romans; and from the latter to the Thracians, the Scythians, and the Sarmatians; from them to the Genoese; from the Genoese to the Tartars; from the Tartars to the Turks; and from the Turks to the Russians, in whose possession it still remains.

Questions on the History of Bosphorus.

How was Bosphorus bounded, and what did it comprise?

How were the Bosporani governed? and into whose hands has this country successively passed?

MEDIA.

THIS is that part of Media which lay between Mount Taurus and the Caspian Sea, and which, on the downfall of the Persian monarchy, was defended against the Macedonians, by Atropatus, who transmitted it to his posterity under the name of Media Atropatia, or Atropatene. How-

ever, the kingdom of Media was subject to the Parthians for many years.

Questions on the History of Media.

Where was this part of Media situated? Who defended it against the Macedonians, and under what name did he transmit it to his posterity? Was the kingdom of Media ever subject to any power?

BACTRIA.

BACTRIA, which is now distinguished by the name of Chorassan, was anciently a large, fruitful, and populous country; and was bounded on the north by the river Oxus, on the east by Asiatic Scythia, on the south by Mount Paropamisus, and on the west by Margiana. The inhabitants were a brave and martial people, who were constantly engaged in war, and enemies to every species of luxury. Their manners were totally unpolished, their morals loose, and some of their customs strongly tinged with cruelty. Their old people, when arrived at a certain age, were exposed to be devoured by fierce mastiffs, which, being kept for that purpose, were called *sepulchral* dogs.

From the most early ages the government of this country was monarchical. In the reign of the last of its sovereigns, Bactria was invaded and subdued by the Parthians and Scythians; the latter of whom held it, till they were expelled by the Huns.

Questions on the History of Bactria.

By what name is Bactria now distinguished, and how was it bounded? What were the character, manners, and customs of the inhabitants?

What was the form of government, and by whom was this country invaded and subdued?

EDESSA.

THE ancient city of Edessa, which was once famous for a magnificent temple of the Syrian goddess, and distinguished by the name of Hierapolis or the Holy City, was situated on the banks of the Scirtus, in Mesopotamia, between Mount Massius and the Euphrates. During some intestine

broils which weakened the government of Syria, this city, together with its fertile territory, was seized by one Abgarus, who erected it into an independent state, under the name of the kingdom of Edessa. The chiefs of this petty state, called sometimes kings and sometimes princes, were all named Abgarus. In the reign of the emperor Caracalla, Edessa was reduced to a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Edessa.

For what was the ancient city of Edessa famous, by what distinguished, and where situated? By whom, and when, was it erected into an independent state? What were the names of its chiefs, and when was it reduced to a Roman province?

EMESA.

THE affairs of Syria being disordered by the contentions of the Seleucidæ, Sampsiceramus, an Arabian, seized on the city of Emesa, which was situated on the Orontes, between Apamea and Laodicea Cabiosa, and assuming the regal title, transmitted the sovereignty to his posterity. The Arabians, under the name of Ituræans, possessed themselves of this little territory.

Questions on the History of Emesa.

When, and by whom, was the city of Emesa seized, and where was it situated? Who possessed themselves of this territory?

ADIABENE.

ADIABENE, which was the principal province of Assyria, was bounded on the north by Calachene, on the east by Apolloniatis, on the south by Sittacene, and on the west by the Tigris. It is celebrated by the ancients for its luxuriant fertility, and was finely watered by the rivers Adiaba and Diaba, from which it is supposed to have derived its name. Its erection into a kingdom resulted from the intestine quarrels of the Seleucidæ, and was so prudently established as to resist the utmost subsequent exertions of Syria. The same race of sovereigns continued till the reign of Artaban II., king of Persia, who subdued Adiabene.

Questions on the History of Adiabene.

What was Adiabene, and how bounded? For what was it celebrated, and whence is it supposed to have derived its name? How happened it to be erected into a kingdom, and how long did the same race of sovereigns continue?

 CHARACENE.

CHARACENE, which was the most southern part of Susiana, was situated on the Persian Gulf, between the Eulæus and the Tigris, and was seized by Pasines, the son of Sogdonacus, king of the neighbouring Arabs, during the troubles of Syria, and erected into a kingdom.

Questions on the History of Characene.

Where was Characene situated, and by whom erected into a kingdom?

 ELYMAIS.

ELYMAIS, a province of Persia, situated between the rivers Oroates and Eulæus, was anciently divided into three districts, viz. Gabiene, Mesabatene, and Carbiana. The inhabitants were a powerful and warlike people, inured to every species of hardship, and capable of defending their liberty against a formidable enemy. They were never subjugated either by the Syro-Macedonian or the Parthian monarchs.

Questions on the History of Elymais.

Where was Elymais situated, and how divided? What was the character of the inhabitants, and were they subjugated?

 COMAGENE.

THIS little kingdom was seized by some of the princes of the Seleucian family, during their intestine divisions; for in the reign of Antiochus the Great, it was subject to the crown of Syria. Vespasian deposed the last sovereign, and reduced his kingdom to a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Comagene.

By whom, and when, was this kingdom seized? By whom was it reduced to a Roman province?

CHALCIDENE.

DURING the contentions of the Seleucidæ, Ptolemy, the son of Mennæus, seized on this fertile and pleasant province, which he erected into a separate kingdom. Being situated at the foot of Mount Lebanon, its position often rendered it the theatre of the wars between the kings of Syria, Damascus, Cœle-Syria, Judea, and Egypt.

Questions on the History of Chalcidene.

When, and by whom, was this province seized and erected into a kingdom? Of what wars was it often the theatre?

PARTHIA.

PARTHIA, which is now distinguished by the name of Erach, was bounded on the north by Hyrcania, on the east by Aria, on the south by Carmania the desert, and on the west by Media. The air of this country is clear and wholesome, but its soil is steril.

The ancient Parthians were originally a tribe of Scythians, who, being expelled from the land of their nativity, took up their abode in this part of Asia. They assumed the name of Parthians, which signifies *exiles*, as expressive of their condition, and gave the derivative appellation, Parthia, to their new settlement. They were a strong and warlike people, and accustomed, from their infancy, to the exercises of horsemanship and archery. They were exceedingly strict in martial discipline, and very abstemious in diet; but they were totally neglectful of agriculture, trade, and navigation; and their morals were so dreadfully depraved, that they were not only polygamists in the most extensive sense, but habitually committed the most shocking incests without punishment or disgrace. Their religious principles were much the same as those of the Persians. Their government was an absolute and unlimited monarchy.

(B. C. 250.) Arsaces, the founder of the Parthian monarchy, assumed the regal dignity in the time of Antiochus Theos, and acted with such prudence, that he not only preserved his new dignity against the force of Syria, but laid the foundation of an empire, which afterwards counterbalanced the overgrown power of the Romans. His son,

Arsaces II., subdued Media, but was soon dispossessed of this acquisition.

On the demise of Arsaces, the government devolved on his son, Priapatius, who bequeathed the crown to his eldest son, Phraates. This last prince subdued the Mardi, a warlike people of the East. He left the kingdom to his brother Mithridates, whose intrepid bravery, sweetness of disposition, and insatiable thirst of glory, rendered him peculiarly dear to his warlike subjects; and who soon reduced Bactria, Persia, Media, Elymais, and several other countries, and carried his victorious arms into India, even beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. He afterwards made himself master of Babylonia and Mesopotamia; and his reign is regarded as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur. Mithridates was also an able legislator, as well as a great warrior.

We pass over a few unimportant reigns till we come to that of Orodes, who engaged in a war with M. Licinius Crassus, which was attended with a vast effusion of blood, and proved extremely disastrous both to the Parthians and the Romans. At length, however, after both armies had repeatedly performed prodigies of valour, and the invaders had resolutely endured the fatigues attendant on their motions in a barren and hostile land, Crassus was overthrown with a great slaughter, and his head sent to Orodes; whilst his vanquished troops tamely surrendered their liberty to the insulting foe, or were put to the sword without mercy. Flushed with this success, Orodes sent an army to besiege the city of Antioch, which, however, the Parthians could not take (B. C. 50). To revenge the death of Crassus, the Romans entered Syria, and, after some partial engagements, succeeded in completely defeating Pacorus, the son of Orodes, who was killed in the battle.

The death of this brave and virtuous prince overwhelmed Orodes with inexpressible grief, and he appointed his son, Phraates, his successor, and admitted him at the same time to a participation of the supreme authority (B. C. 36). Phraates no sooner attained to this height of power, than he caused all his brothers by the daughter of Antiochus Eusebes to be put to death, and attempted to dispatch Orodes also, by giving him a potion of hemlock; but that proving ineffectual, he ordered him to be stifled in his bed, and exercised the same dreadful cruelty upon the prime

nobility, his eldest son, and the other branches of the royal family.

To elude the vengeance of this barbarian, many of the Parthian nobles emigrated into Syria, and prevailed on Marc Antony to invade their unhappy kingdom. The Romans, however, were so extremely fatigued by wearisome marches, and so frequently harassed by the enemy, that they were reduced to the most pitiable extremities, and narrowly escaped destruction. The Parthian monarch continuing to exercise the most wanton cruelties upon his own subjects, the nobles entered into a conspiracy, and chasing him from the country, conferred the sovereignty on Tiribates, one of their own body. Phraates, however, returned, and defeating his rival in a pitched battle, recovered his paternal inheritance. At length, this tyrant was poisoned by his wife, that her son Phraatices might ascend the throne.

Phraatices had scarcely assumed the diadem, when his subjects, resolving to revenge the crime to which he had been accessory, rose in arms, and placed one Orodes, who was of the Arsacidan family, on the throne. This prince, however, exhibited such a savage and tyrannical disposition, that his reign was suddenly terminated by assassination. On the death of Orodes II., the emperor Augustus was requested by the Parthians to send one of the sons of Phraates, who had been educated at Rome, to assume the government. Accordingly, he sent them Vonones, who affected the Roman dress and manners so much, that the Parthians grew weary of him, and persuaded Artabanus, king of Media, to chase him from the throne. After being repeatedly dethroned and replaced, Artabanus, at length, firmly established himself in the government of Parthia, and died, in the thirty-first year of his reign, universally beloved by his subjects.

He was succeeded by his son Bardanes, who made war upon Izates, king of Adiabene (A. D. 47), who had greatly assisted in restoring Artabanus to the throne of Parthia. This ingratitude was so warmly resented by the Parthian nobles, that they caused Bardanes to be assassinated, and bestowed the crown on his brother.

Gotarzes had no sooner obtained the sovereignty, than he began to exercise every species of cruelty upon his subjects (A. D. 49). His reign, however, was short, and he was succeeded by one Vonones, governor of Media. On

the demise of this last prince, the government devolved on Vologeses, the son of Gotarzes, who maintained a bloody war against the Romans, on account of the crowns of Armenia and Syria, which he had bestowed on Tiridates and Pacorus, two of his brothers. Artabanus III. next ascended the throne. He was succeeded by his son Pacorus, of whom little is recorded in history.

Cosdroes, the son of Pacorus, invaded Armenia in the beginning of his reign, and expelled Exadares, who had been placed on the throne of that country by the emperor Trajan. To revenge this insult, Trajan marched into the East, recovered Armenia, made himself master of Mesopotamia, pursued his route to Babylon and Ctesiphon, and assembling the principal lords of Parthia, bestowed their crown on Parthaspates, a prince of the Arsacidan family. On the death of Trajan, however, the Parthians recalled Cosdroes, and chased Parthaspates from the throne. After a very long reign, Cosdroes was succeeded by his eldest son, Vologeses II., who, after carrying on hostilities against Rome for about four years, with various success, consented to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Roman people, and a peace was soon after concluded between the two empires. On the demise of the Parthian king, his nephew Vologeses III., ascended the vacant throne, and having incensed the emperor Severus, was stripped of his treasures, his wives, and his children.

Artabanus, the son and successor of Vologeses, had scarcely established himself in the kingdom, when the emperor Caracalla, desirous of signalizing himself against the Parthians, sent ambassadors to demand his daughter in marriage. This was readily granted; and the king being informed that the emperor was coming to solemnize the nuptials, went out to meet him, with the chief of the Parthian nobility, all unarmed, and habited in splendid dresses. This peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman troops, than they were attacked with the utmost fury, and Artabanus himself was compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate flight. On account of this exploit, the base Caracalla assumed the surname of Parthicus. Artabanus swore irreconcilable hatred to the perfidious emperor, and inspired the whole nation with the same spirit of vengeance. An engagement was fought between the Parthians and the Romans, which was terminated only by darkness. The Romans, however, sending a herald to ac-

quaint the incensed Parthian with the death of Caracalla, and to propose an alliance between the two empires, a peace was concluded, and the heroic combatants retired to their respective countries.

At this juncture, an ignoble, but enterprising Persian, named Artaxares, resolving to attempt the recovery of the sovereign power, raised a numerous body of adherents, and after a dreadful engagement, defeated Artabanus at the head of all the Parthian forces. Artaxares caused Artabanus to be put to death, and restored the empire to the Persians, after they had been subject to the princes of Parthia for the space of four hundred and seventy-five years. However, the royal family of Arsaces continued to reign in Armenia till the time of the emperor Justinian.

Questions on the History of Parthia.

By what name is Parthia now distinguished, and how was it bounded? What is the nature of the soil and of the climate?

Who were the Parthians, and how happened they to assume that name? What were their character, manners, and morals? and what their religion and government?

By whom, and when, was the Parthian monarchy founded? What country did Arsaces the Second subdue? By whom was Arsaces succeeded? What people did Phraates subdue, and to whom did he leave his kingdom? What were the character and actions of Mithridates, and whither did he extend his victories? Of what is his reign considered as the epoch, and what was his character as a legislator?

In what war did Orodes engage, and what were its consequences? What was the fate of M. Licinius Crassus, and of his army? Did Orodes take Antioch, and whom did the Romans completely defeat?

Whom did Orodes appoint his successor, and admit to a participation of the supreme authority? What was the cruel conduct of Phraates?

On whom did the Parthian nobles prevail to invade their kingdom, and what were the sufferings of the Romans? On whom did the nobles confer the sovereignty, and what was the fate of Phraates?

For whom did the Parthians depose Phraates, and what were the character and death of Orodes the Second? Who was the next sovereign of Parthia, what was his character, and by whom was he displaced? How long did Artabanus reign, and what was his character?

By whom was Artabanus succeeded, and for what reason was Bardanes put to death?

What was the conduct of Gotarzes, and by whom was he succeeded? In what war was Vologeses engaged? By whom was Artabanus the Third succeeded?

Whom did Cosdroes expel from the throne of Armenia, and what was the conduct of the emperor Trajan on this occasion? What conduct did the Parthians pursue on the death of Trajan? By whom was Cosdroes succeeded, and what were the actions of Vologeses the Second? Of what was Vologeses the Third deprived by the emperor Severus?

What did the emperor Caracalla demand of Artabanus; the son and successor of Vologeses, and what was that emperor's conduct on this occasion? What was also the conduct of Artabanus and the Parthians? and was a peace concluded?

By whom was Artabanus defeated and put to death, and after what time was the empire of Parthia restored to the Persians? Till what time did the royal family of Arsaces reign in Armenia?

EPIRUS.

EPIRUS, which was divided into Acarnania, Thesprotia, Molossis, and Chaonia, was situated between the Ceraunian mountains, the Gulf of Ambracia, Thessaly, Macedonia, and the Ionian Sea. It is supposed to have been first peopled by Dodanim, the grandson of Japhet, and was anciently divided into several petty kingdoms, which subsisted independently of each other, till the Molossian princes subjected the whole country. At length, the inhabitants, who had been formerly called by various names, became blended under the common appellation of Epirots.

Pyrrhus, the son of Achilles, having distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner at the siege of Troy, resolved to fix his residence in Epirus; and retiring thither, with Andromache, and the Myrmidons, who had served under Achilles in the late war, he took such prudent measures for the establishment of his authority, that the natives, after an unsuccessful struggle, relinquished their liberty, and acknowledged him as their sovereign. He was assassinated soon after by Orestes, and was succeeded by his son Molossus. As this last prince died without issue, the crown devolved on his brother Pielus. In the time of the Persian war, Admetus swayed the sceptre, and rendered some essential services to Themistocles, the Athenian.

Tharymbas applied himself with unwearied diligence to the study of polite literature, encouraged learning among his subjects, and formed many excellent laws. Plutarch reckons him among the ancient legislators. Alcetas, the next king, experienced many vicissitudes of fortune. After the decease of Alcetas, Neoptolemus and Arybas, two brothers, reigned conjointly, of whom the latter was esteemed on account of the patronage he afforded to literature and learned men.

On the death of Arybas, his nephew, Alexander, ascended the throne, by the interest of Philip king of Macedon, and

being fired with military ardour, expected to obtain as great a share of glory in Sicily, Italy, and Africa, as his nephew Alexander the Great was acquiring in Persia, and other parts of Asia. In this, however, he was fatally mistaken; for, after he had obtained two decisive victories, his forces were defeated with great slaughter, and himself was murdered by the treachery of his guards. He was succeeded by Æacides, the son of Arybas, who was killed in an engagement, and after whose death his brother Alcetas received the sovereignty. This last prince exercised the most wanton cruelties on his subjects, who murdered him and his children in a general insurrection.

Pyrrhus, the son of Æacides, next succeeded to the throne. Having quitted Epirus, that he might be present at the nuptials of a particular friend in Illyricum, the Molossians broke out into open rebellion, chased his friends from court, seized on the royal treasure, and bestowed the diadem on Neoptolemus, his great uncle. The unfortunate prince being thus unexpectedly stripped of his dominions, retired to his brother-in-law, Demetrius, and signalized himself on several occasions. At length, he married Antigone, the daughter of Berenice, queen of Egypt, who obtained from her husband Ptolemy an army to enable her son-in-law to recover the crown of Epirus. After regaining possession of his paternal inheritance, he performed those exploits in Macedonia, which have given him a high reputation.

At the request of the Tarentines, Pyrrhus embarked with a numerous force for Italy, and, after narrowly escaping shipwreck, landed at Tarentum, amidst the acclamations of the people. The Tarentines, however, soon perceived, that he whom they had honoured as a deliverer, was determined to become their master. In the mean time (B. C. 280), P. Valerius Lævinus, the Roman consul, committed great depredations on the country of the Lucanians, the allies of the Tarentines, and waited in the neighbourhood for the arrival of Pyrrhus. The king, therefore, ordered him to disband his troops, and to appeal to him as umpire between the Romans and the Tarentines; but Lævinus sending a haughty reply to this command, both parties marched to the banks of the Siris, and encamped opposite to each other. An engagement ensued, which, after a most obstinate resistance, terminated in the defeat of the Romans. However, Pyrrhus lost so many valiant officers and private men, that he was heard to say,

"he was both conqueror and conquered, and that such another victory would entirely ruin him."

Anxious to reap all the advantages of this victory, the king of Epirus rushed, like a resistless torrent, among the Roman allies, and reduced the greatest part of Campania; but he formed no establishment in that country, and returned to Tarentum, where he terminated the campaign. Whilst he remained in that city, Cyneas, his prime minister, was sent with proposals of peace to the Roman senate; but these proving unsuccessful, both parties made preparations for another campaign. A general engagement ensued near Asculum, in which the Roman consul, Decius was killed, and Pyrrhus dangerously wounded; but victory remained doubtful, even at the termination of the battle. Whilst the Romans were preparing for another engagement, Nicias, the king's physician, offered, for a certain reward, to dispatch his master by poison. Indignant at so infamous a proposal, the virtuous Romans cautioned Pyrrhus to avoid the perfidy of his attendants; and the king, deeply affected by this act of generosity, immediately released, without ransom, all the prisoners he had taken. The Romans, however, sent back an equal number of Samnites and Tarentines.

The Syracusans fortunately supplied Pyrrhus with a pretext for quitting Italy, as they requested his assistance against the Carthaginians. At first, he obtained some success; but being afterwards abandoned by the Sicilians, and hard pressed by the Carthaginians, he left Sicily to assist the Tarentines. An engagement ensued, in which twenty thousand Epirots were cut to pieces, the Romans remaining sole masters of the field, with eight elephants, and twelve hundred prisoners. Overwhelmed with confusion at this signal defeat, Pyrrhus set sail for Epirus, with eight thousand foot, and five hundred horse, after having spent six years in Italy and Sicily, without obtaining any solid advantage. He soon after marched a combined army of Epirots and Gauls into Macedon, ravaged the country, captured several cities, defeated Antigonus Gonatus, and took possession of his kingdom.

From Macedon, the warlike king of Epirus marched into Peloponnesus, that he might render himself master of Greece. However, being invited by one of the principal citizens of Argos to espouse his cause against Aristippus, Pyrrhus entered that city imprudently. The conflict raged

with dreadful fury; and the streets were covered with dead bodies, and deluged with blood. The king of Epirus having taken off his helmet, a woman threw a tile on his head from the roof of a house, and killed him on the spot. Thus died Pyrrhus, who was equally famous for his military talents, and excellent disposition, and who seems to have proposed to himself Alexander the Great as a model. He is universally celebrated for his profound knowledge in the art of war; but his inconstancy was so remarkable, that he scarcely tried his strength with one enemy, before he was anxious to engage another.

Pyrrhus was succeeded by his son Alexander, who reduced the kingdom of Macedon, but was afterwards repulsed. Ptolemy, the son and successor of Alexander, was a prince of promising expectations, but died at an early age, and left the crown to his son Pyrrhus, who, after a short reign, was treacherously murdered by the Ambracians. Deidamia, the daughter of Pyrrhus the Second, next ascended the throne; but the Epirots, disdaining to live under the government of a woman, caused her to be assassinated in the temple of Diana, whither she fled for shelter. The wretch who embrued his hands in her blood, was immediately seized with madness, and put an end to his own life; and the Epirots are said to have been severely punished by the united scourges of discord, war, and famine. The royal family of Pyrrhus being now extinct, the Epirots formed themselves into a republic, which was governed by annual magistrates, chosen in the general assembly of the nation. This form of government subsisted till Epirus sunk beneath the victorious arms of Rome, and became a province of that mighty empire. After Constantine, it fell to the share of the emperors of the East; after the taking of Constantinople by the Latins, it was preserved to the Greek princes; and at present, it is known by the name of Albania.

Questions on the History of Epirus.

How was Epirus divided, and where situated? By whom is it supposed to have been first peopled, into what kingdoms was it anciently divided, and under what common name were the inhabitants at length blended?

How did Pyrrhus, the son of Achilles, obtain the sovereignty of Epirus? By whom was he succeeded, and on whom did the crown

afterwards devolve? Who swayed the sceptre of Epirus, in the time of the Persian war?

What was the conduct of Tharymbas, and among whom is he reckoned by Plutarch? What did Alcetas experience, by whom was he succeeded, and for what was Neoptolemus esteemed?

By whom was Arybas succeeded, and what were the character and fate of Alexander? By whom was Alexander succeeded, and after him Æacides, and what were the conduct and death of Alcetas?

How was Pyrrhus, the son of Æacides, deprived of his throne, and by what means did he regain it? By what exploits was he rendered famous?

How was Pyrrhus received at Tarentum? Why did he order the Romans to disband their troops, and appeal to him as umpire between them and the Tarentines? What was the issue of the engagement which followed? and what the observation of Pyrrhus on this victory?

After this victory, what did Pyrrhus perform, and what was the result of his proposals to the Romans for peace? What was the issue of the next engagement, and what the offer of Nicias, the king's physician, to the Romans? Of what did the Romans caution Pyrrhus, and what was the conduct of the king, and of the Romans, towards each other?

For what reason did Pyrrhus quit Italy, and afterwards return thither? With what loss was he defeated by the Romans, and when did Pyrrhus set sail for Epirus? What were his achievements in Macedon?

For what purpose did Pyrrhus march into Peloponnesus, and how was he killed in the city of Argos? What was the character of Pyrrhus, and whom does he seem to have proposed to himself as a model?

By whom was Pyrrhus succeeded, and what did he achieve? What was the character of Ptolemy, and to whom did he leave the crown? What was the fate of Deidamia, daughter of Pyrrhus the Second, and what was the punishment of her murderer, and of the Epirots? After the extinction of the family of Pyrrhus, how was Epirus governed, and after Constantine to whose share did it fall? After the taking of Constantinople how was it preserved, and what is its name at present?

SICYON.

SICYON, the most ancient kingdom of Greece, was situated on the north part of Peloponnesus, since called the bay of Corinth, and was bounded on the west by the province of Achaia, and on the east by the isthmus which joins the peninsula to the continent of Greece. This country abounded with corn, vines, olive-trees, and other commodities, besides iron mines. (B. C. 2764.) Ægialeus was its first sovereign, after whom is reckoned a succession of twenty-five kings.

Questions on the History of Sicyon.

What was Sicyon, where situated, and how bounded? With what did it abound, and who was its first king?

ARGOS.

ARGOS, or Argolis, was situated on the north-east side of Peloponnesus: it was bounded on the east by the two bays of Saron, now Golfo di Napoli, and of Argos; on the north and west by the kingdom of Sicyon, or Achaia Propria, and Arcadia; and on the south by Laconia. It was formed into a kingdom (B. C. 1856) by Inachus, who built the city of Inachus. The dynasties of the Argives were the Apiaidæ, or descendants of Apia; the Pelopidæ, derived from Pelops; and the Heracidæ, or successors of Hercules.

Crotopus had a daughter, who became enamoured of Apollo, to whom she bore a child, which she concealed among rushes, where it was found and devoured by the king's dogs. To punish the Argives for this crime, Apollo sent a monster, which tore the children from the bosoms of the mothers, and destroyed them. This monster being killed by Coræbus, Apollo sent a grievous pestilence; and Coræbus having consulted the oracle, was directed to take a tripod in his hand, and build a temple to the god where it should fall. Accordingly, the tripod fell at Delphi, where a temple was erected.

After a succession of kings, whose reigns extended to about eight hundred years after the deluge, the Argives abolished royalty, and formed themselves into a republic.

Questions on the History of Argos.

Where was Argos or Argolis situated, and how bounded? By whom was it formed into a kingdom, and what were the dynasties of the Argives?

What happened to the daughter of Crotopus, and why did Apollo send a monster to punish the Argives? By what was Apollo appeased, and where was the temple erected to the god?

When did the Argives abolish royalty, and form a republic?

BÆOTIA AND THEBES.

THE kingdom of Bæotia was bounded on the east by Attica; on the north by the strait of Euripus, now called the Negroponte; on the west by the kingdom of Phocis; and on the south by Corinth. The air of this country was thick and foggy, and supposed to have an influence on the

inhabitants, who were not remarkable for vivacity. In Boeotia was the cave of Trophonius, which whoever entered was never seen to laugh afterwards. Here also were the celebrated straits of Thermopylae, which were so denominated from the hot springs in that neighbourhood.

(B. C. 1448.) Cadmus founded the kingdom of Thebes, in which the monarchical form of government was more despotic than in any other of the Grecian states. This prince was of Phœnician extraction, and introduced into Græce the knowledge of alphabetic writing. He is also said to have taught the people navigation and commerce, the method of cultivating the vine, and the art of forging and working metals.

An oracle having predicted, that the son of Laius, king of Thebes, and of Jocasta his consort, should kill his father Laius, to preserve his own life, caused his son, who was called Œdipus, to be exposed. Œdipus was brought up by some shepherds, who found him, and after arriving at maturity, accidentally killed his father, whom he did not know. He married his mother Jocasta, and obtained the kingdom by expounding the riddle of the Sphinx*. When Œdipus discovered the secret of his birth, he tore out his eyes, and Jocasta killed herself.

At length, the Thebans, weary of a regal government, converted the kingdom into a republic, after royalty had been established about three hundred years. At the head of the republic they placed a prætor, who incurred the penalty of death, if he did not resign his office at the expiration of the year. A council of seven, nine, or eleven members, who were called Boeotarchs, served as a check on the authority of the prætor. These members held the first posts in the army; and magistrates, named polemarchs, administered justice. In the Theban republic were four councils, each of which was composed of deputies from different districts, who, when assembled, decided in the last instance on all public affairs. At Thebes, the capital of Boeotia, merchants and artificers were admitted into the number of citizens, though they were excluded from all public employments. A law, which does honour to humanity, forbade the exposing of children. Such parents as were unable to maintain them, might apply to the magis-

* The enigma was,—"What animal walks on four legs in the morning, on two during the day, and on three in the evening?" The answer of Œdipus was,—“Man.”

trate, who found some person willing to take them; and the child became the slave of him who brought him up.

The Bœotians being surrounded by republics more powerful than themselves, their plains frequently served as a field of battle for their enemies and allies. Sometimes, also, they took their share in war; and their soldiers, more firm than impetuous, were much esteemed. They were oppressed by the Romans, who were the tyrants of all who did not meanly crouch to their power. Not in a condition to resist as a nation, the Bœotians attacked them individually, and murdered or threw into a lake every Roman who passed through their country. At length, the Roman proconsul required that the most guilty assassins should be delivered up to him. They were punished with death; and Bœotia was reduced to a province of Rome

Questions on the History of Bœotia and Thebes.

How was the kingdom of Bœotia bounded? Of what nature was the air of this country? What effect was produced in the cave of Trophœus? and where were the straits of Thermopylæ?

Who founded the kingdom of Thebes? Of what extraction was Cadmus, and what did he introduce into Greece, and teach the people?

How did Laius attempt to preserve his own life, and how did Œdipus kill his father? Whom did Œdipus marry, and by what means did he obtain the kingdom? What was the riddle of the Sphinx, and the answer of Œdipus? What was the fate of Œdipus and of Jocasta?

When did the Thebans convert the kingdom into a republic? Who was placed at the head of the republic, and who served as a check on the authority of the prætor? Who held the first posts in the army, and who administered justice? In the Theban republic what was the number of councils, and how composed? At Thebes, who were admitted citizens? What was the law regarding the exposing of children, and how were children without support to be brought up?

Was Bœotia frequently a field of battle, and in what estimation were the soldiers of this country held? By whom were the Bœotians oppressed, how did they retaliate, and how were they punished?

ARCADIA.

ARCADIA, so called from Arcas, the son of Jupiter and Calista, was situated in the middle of Peloponnesus, having Elis on the west, Argolis on the east, Laconia and Messenia on the south, and Sicyon and Corinth on the north. Its ground afforded excellent pasturage; and it was rendered famous by the tuneful strains of its shepherds.

The Arcadians boasted that they were the most ancient people in the world, and *older than the moon*. At first, the Arcadians were a rude and savage people, who lived in the woods and fields; but Pelasgus, one of their kings, taught them to build huts, to live in a social manner, to exchange their common food for nuts, acorns, or the fruit of the beech, and to clothe themselves with the skins of wild beasts. The women accompanied the men to the field of battle; and the latter were frequently hired as mercenary soldiers by the neighbouring powers.

The men tilled and sowed the ground, hived bees, and spun wool; and the women collected honey, milked the cattle, and made thread and linen of flax. Arcadia was, perhaps, the most beautiful country in the world. It presented fertile plains, cool vallies, bold eminences, enchanting prospects, limpid fountains, verdant meadows, and, in fine, all the riches and all the pleasures in nature.

(B. C. 1556.) The kingdom of Arcadia was founded by Pelasgus, and after him is reckoned a long list of kings, of whom nothing curious or interesting is related.

Questions on the History of Arcadia.

From whom did Arcadia derive its name, and where was it situated? What did the ground afford, and for what was this country famous?

Of what did the Arcadians boast? What was the character of this people at first, and how, and by whom, was it changed? Did the women accompany the men to the field of battle, and were the men ever hired as mercenary soldiers?

What were the domestic employments of the people? What was the nature of this country, and what were its principal features?

By whom was the kingdom of Arcadia founded, and by what kings was Pelasgus succeeded?

THESSALY AND PHOCIS.

THESSALY was anciently divided into four districts, or perhaps kingdoms, viz. Thessaliotis, Istæotis, Pelasgiotis, and Phthiotis. This country was bounded on the east by the provinces of Magnesia and Phthia, on the west by Illyricum and Epirus, on the north by Macedonia and Mygdonia, and on the south by Græcia Propria.

In Thessaly were the plains of Pharsalia, and the delightful valley of Tempe, which was so pleasantly situated

between the mountains Ossa, Pelion, and Olympus, and so decorated with the gifts of nature, that it was considered as the garden of the Muses. This country abounded in oxen and excellent steeds; and the Thessalians were expert in the management of horses.

In the reign of Deucalion, Thessaly was covered with a deluge, which destroyed all its inhabitants, except Deucalion and his wife Pyrrha, who were said to have repopled the country by casting behind them stones, which became men and women (B. C. 1280). Those cast by Deucalion became men; and those by Pyrrha, women. In the reign of Pelias, the Argonauts, under the conduct of Jason, fetched from Colchis the golden fleece, which was guarded by a bull, with brazen feet, and breathing forth flames, and by a terrible dragon.

The next Thessalian prince, both in time and fame, was the celebrated Achilles, whose mother, knowing that if he went to the siege of Troy he would be slain, but that Troy could not be taken without him, disguised him in the dress of a female, and sent him to the court of Lycomedes, king of Scyrua. He was, however, discovered by the subtle Ulysses, who went as a merchant, and offered toys and jewels for sale to the daughters of Lycomedes. Achilles made choice of some arms, which Ulysses shewed him, and thus made himself known.

PHOCIS was situated in Græcia Propria, and was bounded on the north by Thessaly; on the south by Corinth; on the west by Ætolia, Locris, and Ozolæa; and on the east by Boeotia and Megaris. In the midst of Phocis stood the city of Delphi, in which was the principal temple of Apollo. At first, this was only a deep cavern, with a narrow entrance, from which issued an exhalation that excited extraordinary emotions in the goats which approached it. Induced by curiosity, the people went in crowds to see it, and were seized with a kind of phrenzy, leaping as if they were mad, and foretelling future events. Afterwards, they placed over the aperture a tripod, upon which a virgin being seated, received and returned the answers of the deity. Phocis contained the mountains Parnassus and Cithæron, which were the supposed abodes of the Muses.

Questions on the History of Thessaly and Phocis.

How was Thessaly anciently divided, and how bounded?

Where were the plains of Pharsalia and the valley of Tempe? In what did this country abound, and in what were the Thasians expert?

What happened in the reign of Danaos, and in what manner was the country repopled? What took place in the reign of Pelias?

Why did the mother of Achilles disguise him as a female? How, and by whom, was his sex discovered?

Where was Phocis situated, and by what bounded? Where was the city of Delphi, and how came the principal temple of Apollo to be erected? How was the tripod placed, and by whom were the answers of the deity received and returned? Where were Parnassus and Cithæron.

ATHENS.

ATTICA was bounded on the west by Megara, mount Cithæron, and part of Bœotia; on the north by the Euripic Gulf, now *Stretto di Negroponte*, and the rest of Bœotia; on the east by the Ægean Sea; and on the south by the Saronic Gulf. It was about sixty miles from north-west to south-east, and about fifty-six from north to south. The soil is naturally barren, and rendered fertile chiefly by the indefatigable industry of the people. The Athenians were early distinguished for good faith in commerce, which was the source of their riches; and by it they acquired the means of raising great armies.

(B. C. 1556.) This kingdom is generally allowed to have been founded by Cecrops, an Egyptian, who brought hither a colony from the mouths of the Nile. He built the city of Athens, deified Jupiter, instituted marriage, which he rendered a sacred union, and forbade to sacrifice to the gods any living animal. He is also supposed to have been the founder of the Areopagus, a court of justice, on the plan of the Egyptian tribunals. Amphictyon, the third king of Athens, established the council of the Amphictyons, which was a deputation from the twelve Grecian states, that assembled twice a year to consult the common interest of Greece. Theseus founded a more perfect equality, in which the state resembled a republic, rather than a monarchy. Notwithstanding his many public and private virtues, this prince fell a sacrifice to the inconstancy of the people, and suffered banishment by ostracism*, a mode of punishment which he had himself instituted.

* Ostracism derived its name from *ὄστρακον* a shell or tile, and was a kind of popular judgment or condemnation, by which such Athenians were banished for ten years, as had power and popularity enough to

The last king of Athens was Codrus, in whose reign the Dorians and Heraclidæ regained all Peloponnesus, and encroached on the Attic territory. The Delphic oracle declared, that the Heraclidæ should finally prevail, if they abstained from injuring the person of the king of Athens. Codrus being informed of this, disguised himself in the habit of a peasant, and proceeding to the camp of the enemy, was slain by one of the soldiers in combat. The next day the Athenians demanded their king, and the Heraclidæ despairing of success, abstained from all farther hostilities. • The merit of Codrus rendered him so much the object of veneration (B. C. 1069), that the Athenians considered no man worthy of succeeding him, and therefore abolished royalty.

They, however, chose from the family of Codrus their first magistrate, whom they denominated *an archon*, and who held his office for life (B. C. 1052); but they afterwards fixed the duration of this office for the same person at ten years. This new decennial dignity had been for some time enjoyed, when the people, rising in a tumult, deposed the archon (B. C. 684), and rendered the office annual; and instead of one, they chose nine archons, who had each a separate department.

These changes convulsed the state, and rendered the condition of the Athenians miserable. Draco, therefore, who was an archon, and of illustrious birth, projected a reform in the constitution of his country (B. C. 623), and thought to repress disorders by the severity of penal laws. Every crime, from the most enormous to the most trifling, was considered as equally heinous, and therefore punished with death. The severity of such a system defeated its own purposes. Aristotle informs us, that Herodotus used to say, "That his institutions seemed to have proceeded from a dragon, rather than from a man;" and Demades

attempt any thing against the public liberty. The process in this condemnation was as follows. the people being assembled, every man took a tile called *ostrakon*, and carried it to a certain part of the market-place, surrounded with wooden rails for that purpose, in which were ten gates for the ten tribes to enter distinctly in this place the tiles were deposited by each person, and numbered in gross by the *archons*. If the tiles did not amount to 6000, the ostracism was void. Then laying every name by itself, the archons pronounced him, whose name was written by the major part, banished for ten years, with leave to enjoy his estate.—See *Robinson's Antiquities of Greece*, p 91.

rendered himself famous by observing, "That the laws of Draco were written not with ink, but with blood."

(B. C. 594.) At length appeared Solon, the wise, the great, the good, who being appointed to the archonship, obtained full power to reform the laws and constitution of the state. His first act was to cancel the laws of Draco, those only excepted which related to murder. He next abolished the debts of the poor by a law of insolvency; and, for this purpose, he lowered the interest, and raised the value of money. Some of his intimate friends, betraying the trust reposed in them by Solon, borrowed large sums of money, with which they purchased estates, before the edict was published; but the people soon laid aside all their suspicions of connivance, when they found that Solon was a loser by the law which he had passed.

He next proceeded to regulate the offices, employments, and magistracies of the state, all of which he committed to the care of the rich; but while he entrusted the execution of the government to the principal persons, he lodged the supreme power in the hands of the people. For this purpose he distributed the Athenians into four classes: the first three were composed of persons possessing property, according to their different proportions of it; and the fourth consisted of those who possessed none. To the last no office or employment in the state was assigned; but they had the power of voting in the general assembly of the people. He conferred greater power on the court of Areopagus, the members of which were appointed to watch over the constitution. He also formed a senate, which was composed of four hundred persons, who had the cognizance of all appeals from the Areopagus, and the examination of all causes, before they could be proposed in the general assembly of the people.

Solon enacted, that those who, in an insurrection or a schism of the people, observed a blamable and dangerous neutrality, should be condemned to perpetual banishment, and all their property be confiscated. He abolished the custom of giving portions in marriage with young women, unless they were only daughters; and the bride was to carry with her no more than three suits of clothes, and some household goods of trifling value. This law was intended to promote a union of congenial minds and mutual affections. It would carry us beyond the limits prescribed, if we entered into any farther details on the su-

bordinate institutions of this legislator*. They have since become the basis of the civil law of Europe; and we may justly affirm, that the institutions of Solon are still partly in force.

After promulging his laws, Solon determined to travel; and having bound the Athenians by an oath, that his institutions should not be changed in any part for the space of ten years, he set out on his journey. Soon after his departure, three different parties appeared among the people; that of the highlands, of the lowlands, and of the coast. They inflamed the minds of the Athenians, and each endeavoured to subvert and usurp the government. Lycurgus was at the head of the country people; Megacles was the chief of the inhabitants on the sea-coast; and Pisistratus declared himself the leader of those in the highlands. Of these, Pisistratus was the most powerful. He was courteous and affable, generous without profusion, and beneficent without ostentation.

This man was on the point of accomplishing his design, when Solon, after an absence of ten years, returned to Athens. The legislator, now advanced in age, was not able to quell the factions, and direct the helm of government in the storm (B. C. 561). Pisistratus having purposely wounded himself, drove his chariot into the marketplace, as if pursued by his enemies; and exhibiting his mangled and bleeding body to the populace, he requested their protection. A general assembly being convened, on the motion of Ariston, Pisistratus obtained a guard of fifty men, and, seizing the citadel, assumed the sovereignty of Athens. He did not, however, make any changes in the Athenian constitution. On the contrary, he endeavoured to provide for the better execution of the laws. Not only the assembly, the council, magistracies, and courts of justice, remained with their full constitutional powers; but Pisistratus is said to have obeyed a citation from the Areopagus on a charge of murder.

Solon died at Cyprus, in the eightieth year of his age, and two years after the assumption of the regal power by Pisistratus. After his death, the Athenians paid him the highest honours, and erected in the forum at Athens, and at Salamis (of which he was a native), a statue of him in

* For a more detailed account of the laws of Solon, and of the civil government of Athens, consult *Robinson's Antiquities of Greece*, Book I.

brass, with his hand in his gown, the posture in which he was accustomed to harangue the people. Besides his knowledge of legislation, he was a very eloquent speaker, and excelled in poetry.

Pisistratus was obliged twice to leave the city, and abandon the sovereign power; but he had the address to reinstate himself in his authority. He was eminent for his love of learning, and of the fine arts, and was the first that built a library for public inspection. He collected and digested the poems of Homer into the order in which we at present possess them. Cicero speaks of him as the first model of that eloquence, in which Greece so eminently excelled. He continued to direct the government of Athens with wisdom and ability, and died at an advanced age.

(B. C. 528.) On the death of Pisistratus, Hippias and Hipparchus, his sons, succeeded to the government. They greatly favoured learning and learned men, and invited to Athens Anacreon of Teos, and Simonides of Cea. A conspiracy was formed against the two brothers; but Hipparchus only was killed. Hippias, whose disposition had hitherto been mild and amiable, now became ferocious and cruel, and caused Aristogiton, one of the principal conspirators, to be put to the torture. This man, when questioned with respect to his accomplices, mentioned some of Hippias's best friends, who were immediately put to death. He then named others, who shared the same fate; and when asked by Hippias, if there were not still more, he replied smiling, "I know of none, now, but yourself, who deserve to suffer death." Leæna also, a woman who lived with Aristogiton, fearing that she should be overcome by the violence of the tortures, bit off her tongue, that it might not be in her power to declare any thing injurious to the man whom she loved.

These cruelties so incensed the Athenians, that they expelled Hippias, and swore eternal hatred to him and his family. Hippias being compelled to abandon Athens, sought the assistance of the Persian monarch, who was highly offended with the Athenians, for having co-operated with the Ionians in sacking Sardis. Darius, the Persian monarch, therefore, readily listened to the proposals of Hippias, and marched a large army to the plains of Marathon. The forces of the Athenians did not amount to more than ten thousand men (B. C. 490), who were com-

manded by ten generals, in the number of whom were Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles. However, the others resigned their command to Miltiades, who decided on an immediate attack. The bravery of the Athenians astonished and intimidated the Persians; and the stern countenances, the discipline, and firmness of the Greeks, decided the victory. According to Herodotus, the Persians lost in this battle six thousand three hundred men, and the Athenians one hundred and ninety-two.

After this engagement, the Persians embarked precipitately, and bore away for Athens, in hopes of carrying the city by surprise; but Miltiades arriving there before them, the Persian admiral steered for Asia, without attempting any thing farther. Miltiades took advantage of the popular favour to ask the command of a fleet, with which he proposed to sail on a secret expedition. He obtained his request, and proceeded to the isle of Paros, which he besieged; but the Parians defending themselves with great bravery, and Miltiades receiving a dangerous wound, he abandoned the enterprise. On his return, he was condemned in a fine of fifty thousand talents; and not being able to pay so large a sum, he was cast into prison, where he died.

After being freed from all apprehensions of foreign invasion, the Athenians became disunited among themselves, and were divided in opinion, whether Athens should be under an aristocratical, or a democratical, form of government. Aristides espoused the sentiments of the one, and Themistocles those of the other party. They were nearly of the same age, and equally noble. Formed in the most celebrated schools of moral and political philosophy, Aristides had been taught to prefer glory to pleasure; the interest of his country to his personal safety and reputation; and the dictates of justice and humanity to every other consideration. Pure and upright in his intentions, he was not solicitous to obtain the external rewards of virtuous exertions. On the other hand, Themistocles was inflamed with ambitious designs, and desirous of performing great and martial achievements. Eloquent, active, and enterprising, he had strengthened his natural endowments by the acquisition of science. Glory, however, was the idol of his heart, the divinity to which he paid unceasing homage. Finding his ambitious projects thwarted

by Aristides, he had the address to procure the banishment of that virtuous citizen by the ostracism.

About three years after this event, the Persians prepared a formidable invasion, and sent messengers to demand "earth and water" from the several Grecian states*. The Athenians being told by the oracle, that they could be saved only by wooden walls. Themistocles explained it to signify, that they should abandon their city, and embark on board the fleet. In this extreme distress, the people regretted the absence of Aristides. Themistocles, who had sufficient confidence in the virtue of Aristides, caused him and others who had been banished, to be recalled; and each of these great men sacrificed his private resentment to the public good.

On the approach of the danger which threatened the Athenians, the other states of Greece hastened to send them succours, knowing that they were exposed to the attack of the same enemy. The Lacedæmonians principally distinguished themselves; and Eurybiades, their admiral, was appointed commander-in-chief. The Persian and Grecian fleets came in sight of each other near Salmis, on the coast of Peloponnesus (B. C. 480). By the advice of Themistocles, the Greeks attacked the enemy in the strait; and a complete victory was the result. That he might remove all fear of the destructive projects, which Xerxes might yet form and execute with the remainder of his forces, Themistocles persuaded the Persian monarch, that the Greeks intended to break down the bridge over the Hellespont. The king of Persia, therefore, immediately retreated with precipitation, and his mighty army was dispersed.

The Grecian states being assembled in the temple of Neptune, on the Isthmus of Peloponnesus, in order to confer the customary honours on him, who, by the free votes of their leaders, had deserved best, each chief was directed to write the name of the man whom he supposed most worthy, and also of him whom he thought deserving the second reward. Each commander put his own name in the first place, and that of Themistocles in the second, a circumstance which sufficiently evinced the superior worth and conduct of the Athenian admiral. Even the

* To demand "earth and water" was to make them acknowledge their subjection to Persia.

Spartans, after having decreed the prize of valour to Eurybiades, assigned that of prudence to Themistocles, and crowned him with a wreath of olive.

During these triumphs, the Persians destroyed the city of Athens, for the opposition and losses which they had experienced, and which they attributed principally to the Athenians. In fact, the Athenians had a great share in the victory of Platæa, where they were commanded by Aristides; and they powerfully assisted the efforts of the other Greeks at Mycale, where the Persian fleet was almost annihilated. The Persians returned to Athens, and levelled even the ruins of ancient buildings. But the city arose from its ashes, and soon recovered its former splendour; and the citizens brought back their families, which had been dispersed throughout Greece. By the address of Themistocles, and contrary to the wishes of the Lacedæmonians, Athens was fortified with strong walls; and a safe harbour, sufficiently capacious for containing a large fleet, was formed at the Piræus, which was united to the city by long walls.

The Lacedæmonians could not pardon Themistocles for having imposed on them respecting these fortifications, which rendered Athens superior to the other Grecian states. They intrigued at Athens with so much success, that the same people of whom Themistocles had been the idol, not only abandoned, but banished him by the ostracism. He retired to the court of Admetus, king of the Molossi, whither the Lacedæmonians pursued him, and compelled him to flee into Asia. He took refuge with the king of Persia, who received him with great kindness, gave him a Persian lady for a wife, assigned him lands, and granted him great privileges to himself and his descendants. Aristides refused to join the enemies of Themistocles, and always spoke of that great man with the highest respect.

On the death of Aristides, Cimon, the son of Miltiades, who is said to have united in his own person the courage of his father, and the prudence of Themistocles, with more integrity than both, was left without an equal in favour and authority with the Athenian people. On him the conduct of the Persian war immediately devolved. He obtained two victories over the Persians in one day, the one by sea, the other by land (B. C. 468), and took an immense booty both in the ships and on shore. He attacked and defeated a fleet with four ships, rendered him-

self master of the Chersonesus, and seized on the gold mines of Thrace, which were the principal objects of his expedition. He obtained prodigious sums of money, which enriched the public treasury, and which enabled him to gratify his natural inclination to generosity. His familiarity was without meanness, and his reserve free from pride.

About the same time appeared on the public scene Pericles, who was a descendant of those who had expelled the Pisistratides, and who possessed many advantages both from nature and fortune. Cimon did not conceal his inclination to the aristocracy, which was injurious to him with the multitude, and rendered even his generosity suspected. Whilst Cimon loved to appear in public, Pericles seldom shewed himself, except when obliged by the duties of his employment. In person, manner, and voice, Pericles remarkably resembled Pisistratus; and this circumstance obliged him to conceal, for a long time, the shining qualifications of which he was possessed. In youth, therefore, he employed his active hours in arms, and his leisure in studies. His family interest and party connections led him to court the popular favour, and oppose the aristocracy. His eloquence was so nervous and animated, that he obtained the surname of Olympius.

A contest soon took place between Cimon and Pericles. Victory long hesitated between the two parties; but, at length, Cimon was publicly accused of having received presents from the Macedonians not to enter their territories when he seized on the Persian gold mines in Thrace. Whilst the public mind was thus agitated, a favourable opportunity was seized; the ostracism was proposed and carried; and by the banishment of Cimon, the party in opposition became possessed of the reins of government. During his exile, the Athenians were beaten, and regretted that they had not the assistance of Cimon. A reconciliation, between the aristocratical and democratical parties in Athens was therefore effected; and Pericles proposed, in an assembly of the people, to recall Cimon from banishment.

In order to preserve internal tranquillity, Cimon saw the necessity of turning the spirit of enterprise towards foreign conquest, and particularly against Persia, the common enemy of Greece. After obtaining repeated successes over the Persians and their allies, he died in

the arms of victory, whilst besieging the principal city in the isle of Cyprus. It is not known whether his death was occasioned by sickness, or by a wound that he had received. Great as was the military character of Cimon, his wisdom, integrity, moderation, and conciliatory conduct, were virtues which caused his loss to be severely felt and deplored. Others might command fleets and armies, and obtain victories; but they could not, or at least did not, free Greece from civil feuds, and domestic wars.

After the death of Cimon, Pericles became the principal person in the state; but the aristocratical party never ceased to molest and oppose him. He proposed to form of the several Grecian republics one great commonwealth, of which Athens should be the head; but the pride of the Peloponnesians, and especially of the Lacedæmonians, who opposed the measure with all their power, obliged him to abandon the project. The Megarians having revolted from the Athenians, and joined the Lacedæmonians, occasioned a war between Athens and Sparta. At length (B. C. 446), a cessation of hostilities was concluded between the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians for the space of thirty years.

From a spark excited in a remote corner of Greece arose that general conflagration, which has been designated by the name of the Peloponnesian war. However, to explain the preparatory causes of this war would lead us into a long detail of domestic feuds and jealousies of neighbouring states. Suffice it, therefore, to observe, that the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians, by encouraging reciprocal pretensions, had for a long time fomented these partial enmities, and that, at length, the several states of Greece ranged themselves under the Spartan or the Athenian standard. The Spartans demanded that the Athenians should make reparation for the injuries committed against the Lacedæmonian allies; but Pericles, refusing to accede to this demand, pleaded the cause of his friends, and vindicated his conduct in a very eloquent and celebrated but fatal discourse, which unalterably decided the war of Peloponnesus.

(B. C. 431.) In the first year of the war, the Lacedæmonians ravaged the territory of Athens, and advanced to the very walls of the city. Pericles, however, sent out fleets, which retaliated on the enemy for the ravages

committed in Attica; and he amused the citizens shut up in Athens, with distributions of money from the public treasury, with a law for the division of the lands, and with funeral honours rendered to the dead.

In the second year, a dreadful plague desolated Attica, while the enemy ravaged the country. Pericles would not allow the Athenians to go out of the city. The plague, however, raging among the soldiers and seamen, the Athenians lost their courage, and sued for peace; and being refused, deprived Pericles of all his dignities, and condemned him to pay a fine. Nevertheless, with an inconstancy natural to the people, they soon recalled him, and invested him with almost absolute authority. The Athenians besieged Potidæa, the inhabitants of which being reduced to the necessity of eating human flesh, at length surrendered.

In the third year, good and ill success were divided between the contending powers. Pericles, most of whose family and friends had already fallen a victim to the plague, was seized with that disease, and died. Some of his friends, during his last moments, supposing him to have lost all knowledge and recollection, recounted the wisdom and incorruption of his administration, and his victories by sea and land. On hearing them, the dying statesman and sage, raising himself on the bed, said, "You forget the best and noblest part of my character; no one of my fellow-citizens was ever compelled, on my account, to wear a mourning robe." He expired, teaching an important lesson to the human race, that, in the hour of death, when all other objects fade and disappear, the recollection of the most innocent and inoffensive parts of life will be most pleasing to the mind.

In the five succeeding years, the Lacedæmonians and the Athenians laboured to establish, the former an aristocratical, and the latter a democratical form of government, in the states and cities of which they had rendered themselves masters. In them they formed parties, fomented divisions, and excited the citizens to engage in contests with each other; and the unhappy inhabitants of Corcyra afforded a fatal example of the excesses and furious cruelties of which men are capable in civil wars.

In the ninth and tenth years, propositions of peace were made, and a treaty of pacification, between the Lacedæmonians and the Athenians, was at length agreed on.

but the claims of the inferior states being ill-regulated, they continued hostilities, and the principal powers became auxiliaries.

In the three following years, Alcibiades acted a considerable part on the political stage. He was the son of Clinias, and the nephew of Cimon, and was descended lineally from Ajax by his father, and from the Alcmeonidæ by his mother. He was remarkably handsome, richer than most of the Athenian nobles, learned, eloquent, indefatigable, magnificent, affable, and courteous; but when he acted without restraint, he was indolent, luxurious, dissolute, intemperate, and irreligious. In fine, he surpassed all his fellow-citizens in vices, as well as in virtues. The Lacedæmonians having sent ambassadors to Athens, these ministers applied to Nicias, who introduced them into the senate, where they declared that they were vested with full power to adjust all differences. When they retired from the senate, Alcibiades invited them to his house, and expostulating with them on their attaching themselves to Nicias, advised them to deny in the general assembly of the people that they were vested with full powers, lest the Athenians should be induced to extort unreasonable compliances. When, therefore, the ambassadors came into the forum, Alcibiades asked them whether they had full powers; and on their answering in the negative, "You see, my countrymen," said he, "what credit is due to these Lacedæmonians, who deny to you to-day, what they solemnly affirmed to the senate yesterday!" Upon which the people refused to hear the Lacedæmonians, and dismissed them.

In the four following years, the Argives declared in favour of Sparta, abolished the democratical, and established an aristocratical, form of government. But growing weary of the latter, they expelled the Lacedæmonians, banished the aristocrats, and recalled the Athenians, who sent Alcibiades to support the democracy, and procure the banishment of those who favoured the Lacedæmonians. Many of the inhabitants of the island of Melos were punished still more cruelly for their attachment to Sparta.

In the seventeenth year of the war, the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians made Sicily the scene of warfare. The Athenians sent a fleet to the assistance of the Egæstines, who were engaged in a war with the Syracusans.

Nicias was appointed commander in this expedition, and Alcibiades and Lamachus were his colleagues. But while the necessary preparations were making, all the statues of Mercury were defaced in one night. Suspicion fell on Alcibiades; and his colleagues, after they arrived in Sicily, were ordered to send him to Athens under a strong guard. Alcibiades, however, escaped to Lacedæmon; and by conforming to the Spartan manners, and divulging the plans of the Athenians, he gained the confidence of the Lacedæmonians.

The next year, the Lacedæmonians, by the advice of Alcibiades, seized and fortified Decelea, which was situated at an equal distance from Athens and the frontiers of Bœotia. This year, also, the Athenians were defeated in Sicily, where they lost their fleet, their army, and their generals. These losses and defeats induced the Athenians to establish a council of aged men, who were to discuss all affairs before they were proposed to the people.

In the twentieth year of the war, Alcibiades procured the Lacedæmonians the alliance of the Persians; but having seduced the wife of Agis, the Spartan king, he sought refuge with Tissaphernes, the general of the Persians, and immediately became a voluptuous Asiatic, the umpire of taste and the arbiter of pleasures. He now made proposals to return to Athens, and procure the Athenians the alliance of Persia, if they would abolish the democratical and substitute an aristocratical form of government. The Athenians, always prone to novelty, on the arrival of Pisander and the other deputies from the army, who brought the propositions of Alcibiades, determined to dissolve the democracy, and confide the sovereign power to five thousand of the richest citizens. But this form not giving the chiefs all the power which they wished, Pisander proposed that five prytanes should be elected; and that these five should choose a hundred; that each of the hundred should choose three; and that the four hundred thus elected should become a senate with supreme power, and consult the five thousand only when they thought proper. This proposal was accepted by the people; and the elections were made in the presence of the assembly. After this, the four hundred, armed with poniards, and accompanied by a guard, expelled the former senators.

This change, however, was disagreeable to the army, as well as to Alcibiades, who could not approve of a govern-

ment, which excluded the nobles, and vested the power in the hands of a few. The soldiers having recalled Alcibiades, and appointed him general of the army, that celebrated man commanded the four hundred to resign their authority, and restore the former senate. This order caused great confusion in Athens; but at length, the power of the four hundred was abolished, and the supreme authority restored to the five thousand.

After Alcibiades took the command of the Athenian forces, he obtained several victories, and, in one day, defeated the Lacedæmonians both by sea and land, and took the whole of their fleet. On his return to Athens, the decree of his banishment was thrown into the sea, and the people appointed him commander-in-chief by land and sea, with unlimited power. Unfortunately, however, whilst absent, he committed the care of the fleet to an officer who was beaten by the enemy. The Athenians being persuaded that this defeat was owing to the indolence and luxury of Alcibiades, and that he corresponded with the Lacedæmonians, instantly stripped him of his command, and appointed ten admirals to supply his place. Alcibiades passed over into Thrace, where he built a castle for his own security, and erected a small principality in the midst of his many and potent enemies.

(B. C. 406.) The ten admirals gained a great victory, with the loss, however, of twenty-five of their ships, and most of the men they contained. Theramenes, one of the commanders, accused his colleagues of having taken no care to save the dying, or pay the last rites to the dead. Six of the admirals, therefore, were tried, condemned, and executed for this crime.

Lysander, the Spartan admiral, attacked the Athenians both by sea and land, in the neighbourhood of Thrace, and gained one of the most complete victories recorded in history. He then reduced all the cities which had been under the Athenian power, and blocked up Athens by sea, whilst Agis besieged it by land. For a long time, the Athenians defended themselves with great resolution, without even demanding a peace. At length, being sore pressed by famine, they were obliged to accept a peace on the following severe conditions, viz. that the long walls and the fortifications of the Piræus should be demolished; *that they should deliver up all their ships except twelve;*

receive all whom they had banished, and follow the fortune of the Lacedæmonians. Lysander caused the walls to be demolished at the sound of music (B. C. 404). Thus the ruin of Athens terminated the Peloponnesian war, which lasted twenty-seven years.

As soon as Lysander had demolished the long walls, and the fortifications of the Piræus, he constituted a council of thirty, who are designated in history under the title of the thirty tyrants. Instead of making laws, they governed without them, appointed a senate and magistrates at their will, and sent for a garrison from Lacedæmon. At the head of the thirty were Critias and Theramenes, men of the greatest abilities in Athens: the former was ambitious and cruel in the extreme; but the latter was of a milder disposition, and averse to sanguinary measures. Theramenes endeavoured to oppose the cruelties of the tyrants: and Critias, therefore, accusing him, as a betrayer of the public cause, he was hurried to the place of execution, and compelled to drink the baneful hemlock.

The death of Theramenes removed the last curb to the ferocity of the thirty, whose cruelty obliged great numbers to flee from Athens. Thrasybulus collected a few of these unfortunate fugitives at Thebes, who were resolved to encounter every danger, rather than live thus exiled from their native country. He first secured a post in Attica, and then making himself master of the Piræus, he attacked and defeated the Lacedæmonians. He exhibited the tyranny of the thirty in such odious colours, that the people expelled them, and confided the government to ten magistrates. He afterwards concluded a peace with the Lacedæmonians, and procured an act of general amnesty. The tyrants, during their short reign, had put to death fourteen hundred citizens, and driven into banishment five thousand. They had also a considerable share in procuring the death of Alcibiades, whom they represented to the Lacedæmonians as a lion to be feared, and who was basely murdered by assassins.

Soon after the popular form of government was re-established, Socrates, the master and the friend of Alcibiades, was condemned and put to death. Brave in war, of a mild and easy conversation, and equally esteemed for wisdom and integrity, he could not but displease the thirty; who first endeavoured to render his manners and his doctrine suspected: they then attempted to disgrace him by

forcing him to concur in their tyranny, or be guilty of an act of disobedience. Every kind of persecution was practised against him. In the theatre he was decried and vilified; and Aristophanes introduced him on the stage, teaching sophisms, by which a bad cause might be rendered good, preaching new gods, and ridiculing whatever was held sacred. At length, he was formally accused of not acknowledging the gods of the republic; and, though he pleaded his cause in a most forcible manner, he was condemned to suffer death.

Conon endeavoured to restore the affairs of the Athenians, by courting the alliance of the king of Persia. His attempts were ably seconded by Iphicrates, who was remarkable for the spirit of precaution and vigilance which he so eminently displayed; and by Thrasybulus, who greatly assisted in retrieving the Athenian affairs. At length, Antalcidas, a Spartan admiral, entered into a general treaty with the king of Persia, by which he endeavoured to adjust the interests of all the states of Greece, and which was called the peace of Antalcidas (B. C. 387). However, the Lacedæmonian and Athenian republics soon took part in the quarrels of those whom they imagined they could reconcile. Some cities refusing to accept their liberty, and others to be attached to more considerable states, occasioned disputes, in which recourse was had to arms.

The Chians, Rhodians, Coans, and Byzantines, weary of the tyranny of the Athenians, determined to throw off the yoke, and free themselves (B. C. 358). On the first notice of this revolt, the Athenians sent a large fleet under the command of Chares, Timotheus, and Iphicrates, who were joined equal in commission. Chares wishing to engage the enemy, and not being able to prevail on Timotheus and Iphicrates, accused his colleagues, whom the people mulcted in a large fine. Timotheus died of grief. The Athenians remitted the greatest part of the fine to his son Conon, but obliged him to pay a tenth of it, which they appropriated to the reparation of those walls which had been rebuilt by his grandfather Oconon.

(B. C. 356) The Phocians having plowed some land which belonged to the temple at Delphi, were sentenced to pay a fine by the Amphictyons, or general assembly of Greece. But they refusing to submit to the judgment of that court, the Locrians and the Bœotians made war on them. The Phocians gained the advantage, and seized all the trea-

sures of the temple, with which they hired mercenary troops, and especially Athenians, who finding their offers very considerable, joined them in great numbers. This was called the sacred war.

About this time Demosthenes became eminent as an orator. He was the son of an Athenian, who had amassed a large fortune by the manufacture of sword-blades. He applied himself to the study of oratory; and though nature was unfavourable to him, by patience and attention he acquired a manly and solid eloquence, which was superior, not only to that of his cotemporaries, but even to that of all others in every age and every nation. He exhorted the Athenians to live on good terms with the Persian monarch, who possessed neither the power nor the will to conquer them; and he cautioned them against the growing influence of Philip, king of Macedon, and exerted all his eloquence to rouse the Athenians to a proper sense of the danger, which was to be apprehended from the designs of that sovereign.

Phocion was a soldier, a general, and politician, and valued himself less on being an orator. He spoke justly, judiciously, and concisely, shewed no preference to any party, and was actuated only by a real wish to promote the benefit of his fellow-citizens, by integrity and by reason. Demosthenes was lively and ardent, and always proposed to the multitude bold and extraordinary projects; whilst Phocion, whose characteristic was mildness and caution, proposed only such as were moderate and easy to be carried into effect.

Notwithstanding the copious and energetic eloquence of Demosthenes, Philip successfully proceeded in his project to subjugate Greece, and gained the famous battle of Chæronea, which placed Athens at his discretion (B.C. 338). No sooner was it known, that the king of Macedon was dead, than the Athenians gave themselves up to a ridiculous joy, and wore chaplets of flowers, as if they had obtained a great victory. Philip, however, was succeeded by Alexander, who reduced the Athenians to the extremity of humbly soliciting a peace.

On the death of Alexander, the Athenians flew to arms, and imprudently took the field against Antipater, one of Alexander's generals, whom that monarch had appointed governor of Greece. They were defeated, and obliged to submit to deliver up to Antipater, Demosthenes, and Ilype

rides, another orator; to re-establish the ancient method of levying taxes; to receive a garrison into their ports; and to pay the expences of the war, and a certain sum of money. Demosthenes fled, and being pursued by order of Antipater, poisoned himself.

(B. C. 318.) On the death of Antipater, two parties arose in Macedonia, at the head of one of which was Polyperchon, who had the custody of the person of the king; and of the other, Cassander, the son of Antipater. The latter sent Nicanor, a man of great experience, and a good soldier, to command the garrison in Athens. In the mean time, Polyperchon, being desirous of recovering the Greek cities from his rival Cassander, published a decree in the king's name, restoring liberty to Athens, and directing the garrison immediately to withdraw from that place, and the democracy to be restored. Nicanor refused to obey this order, and Phocion approved and publicly defended this refusal. When, therefore, Polyperchon appeared before Athens with a strong army, Phocion was dragged before him in chains; and he and his friends were condemned by the Athenians to be put to death.

(B. C. 306.) Demetrius, surnamed Poliorcetes, the son of Antigonus, another of Alexander's generals, pretended to free Athens from the yoke of Cassander, and drove out Demetrius Phalereus, who had been appointed governor, and who had treated the Athenians with the utmost mildness, and embellished the city with new edifices. Poliorcetes having gained a victory over Cassander, who threatened Athens, the Athenians assigned him lodgings behind the temple of Minerva, in the apartments belonging to the virgins devoted to her service: this was a scandalous insult on religion, as his dissolute manners were notorious.

Satiated with the flatteries of the Athenians, Poliorcetes set out for Asia, where he experienced some reverse of fortune. When, therefore, he proposed to return to Athens, in which his vices and follies had been so much flattered, the people refused to receive him into their city. Upon this, he laid siege to Athens, which he compelled to surrender at discretion. After some mild reproaches, he pardoned the people; but when Poliorcetes had lost the kingdom of Macedon, the Athenians degraded his priest, overthrew his altar, and restored their former names and order to the months, one of which had been called Demetrias from him. Antigonus Gonatus, the son of Demetrius,

punished them for this insult, and placed a garrison in the citadel of Athens. By means of Aratus, Athens became again free, under the protection of the Achæan league.

After the dissolution of the Achæan league by the Romans, Athens continued in the same state as the other Grecian communities, till the Mithridatic war (B. C. 88), when that city openly declared against the Romans, and espoused the cause of the king of Pontus. Sylla being appointed to conduct the war against Mithridates, besieged Athens; but, after many fruitless attempts to storm the place, was obliged to turn the siege into a blockade, and wait the effects of famine. In a short time, the city was reduced to the last extremity; but Aristion, the tyrant of the place, expecting no quarter for himself from the Romans, refused to capitulate. Sylla knowing the weak state of the besieged, stormed and forced the walls with great slaughter, and put Aristion to death (B. C. 87).

Vespasian reduced Attica to a Roman province; but some of his successors were the friends and protectors of the Athenians, and granted them many privileges.

Questions on the History of Attica.

How was Attica bounded, and what was its extent? What is the nature of the soil; and for what were the Athenians early distinguished?

By whom was the kingdom of Attica founded, and what institutions did Cecrops establish? By whom is the Areopagus supposed to have been founded? Who established the council of the Amphictyons? What did Theseus found, and how was he punished? What was the ostracism, and what its process?

Who was the last king of Athens, what took place in his reign, and how happened Codrus to be slain? What was the consequence of his death, and for what reason did the Athenians abolish royalty?

From whom did the Athenians choose their first magistrate, by what name was he designated, and for what time did he hold his office? What change did the people effect in the decennial dignity, and what number of archons were afterwards chosen?

What did these changes produce? Who was Draco, and how did he attempt to repress disorders? What was the nature of his laws, and how likely were they to be successful? What did Herodicus and Demades observe with regard to the laws of Draco?

What was the character of Solon, and what was he empowered to reform? What laws of Draco did he cancel, and how abolish the debts of the poor? How did some of the friends of Solon betray their trust, and how were the people convinced of Solon's disinterestedness?

What offices did Solon commit to the care of the rich, and in whose hands did he lodge the supreme power? Into how many classes were the Athenians divided? To which class was no office or emp^y

assigned, but what power did they enjoy? What did Solon effect in the court of the Areopagus? For what was the senate formed?

What punishment did Solon enact against persons who did not assist in suppressing an insurrection? What did he enact with regard to marriage portions, and for what purpose? What have the institutions of Solon since become?

To what did Solon bind the Athenians when he entered on his travels? What parties soon appeared in the state, and who were their principals? What was the character of Pisistratus?

When Solon returned, what was Pisistratus on the point of accomplishing, and was the legislator able to quell the factions? By what means did Pisistratus obtain the government of Athens? What changes did he make in the constitution, and did he himself submit to the laws?

Where, and at what time, died Solon? What honours did the Athenians pay to their lawgiver? What were the qualifications and abilities of Solon?

How did Pisistratus retain the sovereign power? For what was he eminent, and what are the obligations due to him, with regard to the poems of Homer? How is he spoken of by Cicero, and in what manner did he direct the government of Athens?

By whom was Pisistratus succeeded, and did Hippias and Hipparchus favour learning and learned men? How was Hipparchus killed, and what was the subsequent conduct of Hippias? Whom did Aristogiton accuse as accomplices, and what was the conduct of Leand, a woman with whom Aristogiton lived?

Was Hippias expelled Athens, and whose assistance did he seek? Whither did Darius march his army, what number of troops had the Athenians, and by whom were they commanded? To whom was the command resigned, and what decided the victory at Marathon? What number of men, does Herodotus say, were killed on either side?

How were the Persians prevented from taking Athens by surprise? What secret expedition did Miltiades undertake, and how did it terminate? What was the fate of Miltiades?

How were the Athenians now divided, and whose sentiments did Aristides espouse, and whose Themistocles? What were the age and station of Aristides and Themistocles, and what their respective characters? Did Themistocles procure the banishment of Aristides?

After preparing a formidable invasion, what did the Persians demand of the Grecian states, and for what reason? How did Themistocles explain the term "wooden walls" as used by the oracle? Why was Aristides recalled from banishment?

How did the other Grecian states, and particularly the Lacedæmonians, assist the Athenians? Where did the Persian and Grecian fleets encounter each other, and what was the issue of the battle? By what means did Themistocles persuade Xerxes to return into Asia?

For what purpose did the Grecian states assemble on the Isthmus of Peloponnesus? Whose name did each commander put after his own, and what was the prize which the Spartans decreed to Themistocles?

For what reason did the Persians destroy the city of Athens? Did the city recover its former splendour, and how was it fortified and improved?

Were the Lacedæmonians offended with Themistocles, and what punishment did the Athenians inflict on that celebrated man? Whither did Themistocles retire, and how was he received by the king of Persia? Did Aristides join the enemies of Themistocles?

On the death of Aristides, who succeeded to the favour and authority

of the Athenians? What victories did Cimon obtain, and what was his character?

Who was Pericles, and what was the dissimilarity in his disposition and that of Cimon? Whom did Pericles resemble, which party did he espouse, and what was the nature of his eloquence?

How did the contest between Cimon and Pericles terminate? What happened to the Athenians during the exile of Cimon, and how was he recalled?

What enterprise did Cimon undertake, and where did he die? By what was his death occasioned, and what was his character?

What did Pericles now become, and by whom was he opposed? What project did he form? What occasioned a war between Athens and Sparta, and how was it terminated?

From what causes arose the Peloponnesian war, and what was the demand of the Spartans which induced Pericles to decide on this fatal war?

In the first year of the war, what events took place, and how did Pericles amuse the Athenians?

In the second year, by what was Attica desolated, and for what reason was Pericles deprived of his dignities? Was he re-instated in his authority, and what city was taken by the Athenians?

In the third year, what success attended the contending parties? Of what died Pericles, and what seems to have consoled him on the bed of death?

In the five succeeding years, what did each of the contending powers labour to establish, and what were the consequences?

In the ninth and tenth years, was peace agreed on, and how observed?

In the three following years, who acted a considerable part on the political stage? Who was Alcibiades, and what was his character? To what did Alcibiades advise the Lacedæmonian ambassadors, and how deceive them?

In the four following years, which party did the Argives support, and how were the inhabitants of Melos treated?

In the seventeenth year, what country was made the scene of warfare, and for what reason did the Athenians engage in war with the Syracusans? On this occasion, who were the Athenian commanders, and why was Alcibiades ordered to be sent back to Athens? Whither did he escape?

What did the Lacedæmonians effect the next year, and what losses did the Athenians sustain? For what purpose was a council of aged men appointed?

In the twentieth year of the war, whither did Alcibiades flee from Sparta, and what did he become at the Persian court? What proposals did he make to the Athenians, and how were they received? On the suggestion of Pisander, what form of government was established at Athens?

Was this change agreeable to the army and to Alcibiades? When Alcibiades was invested with the command of the Athenian army, what orders did he issue, and what authority restore?

What victories did Alcibiades obtain, and to what was he appointed by the people? For what reason was he stripped of his command, and whither did he retire?

What victory did the ten admirals obtain, and what was the loss of the Athenians? For what were six of the admirals executed?

What victory did Lysander, the Spartan admiral, obtain over the

Athenians, what cities did he reduce, and how was Athens invested? What were the conditions of the peace which the Athenians were obliged to accept? Were the walls of Athens demolished, and with what, and after what time, terminated the Peloponnesian war?

What council did Lysander establish in Athens? How did they govern? Who were at the head of the thirty, and what were their characters? What was the fate of Theramenes?

What caused great numbers of the Athenians to flee their country, and what did Thrasybulus effect with some of the refugees? After expelling the thirty, to whom did the people confide their government? Did Thrasybulus conclude a peace with the Lacedæmonians? What cruelties did the thirty tyrants exercise, and what share had they in procuring the death of Alcibiades?

When was Socrates put to death? What was his character, and how did he displease the thirty? How was he persecuted? Of what was he accused, and for what put to death?

How did Conon endeavour to restore the affairs of the Athenians, and by whom was he assisted? By whom was the peace of Antalcidas concluded? What were the results of this peace?

Under whose command did the Athenians send a large fleet to quell a revolt of the Chians, Rhodians, Coans, and Byzantines? What was the success of this expedition, and on which of the commanders were fines imposed?

For what reason did the Locrians and the Bœotians make war on the Phocians? Which of the contending parties gained the advantage, and what use did they make of the treasures of the temple? What was this war called?

When did Demosthenes become eminent as an orator? Whose son was he, to what did he apply himself, and what was the nature of his eloquence? With whom did he exhort the Athenians to live on good terms, and against whom did he caution them?

Who was Phocion, and what were his character and conduct? In what particulars did Demosthenes and Phocion differ from each other?

How did Philip, king of Macedon, proceed in his subjugation of Greece? On the death of Philip, what was the conduct of the Athenians? To what extremity were the Athenians reduced by Alexander?

On the death of Alexander, what was the conduct of the Athenians, and to what terms were they obliged to submit? What was the fate of Demosthenes?

On the death of Antipater, what parties arose in Macedonia, and who was sent to command the garrison in Athens? What decree did Polyperchon publish, and by whom was it resisted? What was the fate of Phocion and his of friends?

What was the conduct of Demetrius, surnamed Poliorcetes, towards Athens? What lodgings did the Athenians assign to Poliorcetes?

How did the Athenians receive Poliorcetes on his return from Asia? To what did he compel Athens, and how did he treat the people? When Poliorcetes had lost the kingdom of Macedon, what was the conduct of the Athenians, and how were they punished by Antigonus Gonatus? By means of whom did Athens become free?

After the dissolution of the Achæan league by the Romans, till the Mithridatic war, what was the state of Athens? How did Sylla take the city of Athens?

By whom was Attica reduced to a Roman province?

CORINTH.

THIS little state was situated on the Isthmus of Corinth, and was bounded on the north by the bay of that name, now called Golfo di Lepanto, and by the isthmus which joins Peloponnesus to the continent; on the west by Sicyon; on the east by the gulf of Saron; and on the south by the kingdom of Argos. The chief mountain was denominated Acrocorinthium, at the foot of which stood the city of Corinth, and upon the summit the citadel. The situation of Corinth rendered it the centre of the commerce of all Greece, and consequently of its riches. In Corinth, the arts were carried to the highest degree of perfection; and the most elegant of the orders of architecture still retains the name of the Corinthian. On account of its richness, greatness, and excellent situation, the Romans thought Corinth equally worthy of empire with Carthage and Capua.

This little state rendered itself formidable to all Greece, by the mercenary soldiers, whom its riches enabled it to maintain, and who were always commanded by the citizens. (B. C. 1514.) The first king of Corinth was Sisyphus, who is said to have been the son of Æolus, and grandfather of the celebrated Ulysses. His successor Glaucus is commonly supposed to have instituted the Isthmian games. The Corinthian monarchy, however, did not continue in the lineal succession of Sisyphus. His family became extinct, or as others affirm were driven from the throne, when the Bacchidæ seized the reins of government. Subsequently to this (B. C. 1084), Corinth fell under an aristocracy, and was governed by two hundred Bacchidæ, who annually elected from their own body a supreme magistrate, denominated prytanis. The aristocratical form of government continued till Cypselus found means to usurp the regal power, which he transmitted to his son Periander (B. C. 674), who, from the love that he bore to learning, and his encouragement of its professors, was ranked among the seven wise men of Greece.

Questions on the History of Corinth.

Where was Corinth situated, and by what bounded? Where stood the city of Corinth, and where the citadel? What did the situation of Corinth render it, and how did the arts flourish? Why did the Romans think Corinth worthy of empire?

By what means did this little state render itself formidable to all Greece? Who was its first king? By whom were the Isthmian games instituted, and how long did the succession continue in the family of Sisyphus? When did Corinth fall under an aristocracy, and what was the name of the supreme magistrate? Who usurped the regal power, and to whom did he transmit it? What was the character of Periander?

LACEDÆMON, OR SPARTA.

THIS country was originally denominated Laconia; afterwards Sparta, from the metropolis; and Lacedæmon, from one of its ancient kings. It was situated in the south-east corner of Peloponnesus, having Argos and Arcadia on the north, Messenia on the west, the bay of Argos on the east, and the Mediterranean on the south. The city of Lacedæmon or Sparta*, which was the most powerful in Greece, stood at the bottom of mount Taygetus, on the banks of the river Eurotas. The Lacedæmonians were a brave and warlike people, and jealous of their honour and their liberty, as well as of the power of their neighbours.

(B. C. 1704.) The Spartan or Lacedæmonian government was at first monarchical, and was founded by Lelex. Helen, the tenth in succession from this monarch, is equally famous for her beauty and infidelity. She had not lived more than three years with her husband Menelaus, when Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, who was universally accounted the handsomest man of his age, and was adorned with those frivolous accomplishments which too often captivate the female mind, arrived in Sparta. His person, attainments, and address, seduced the affections of Helen; and she abandoned her country, her husband, and relations, and was transported with all her wealth to the Trojan land. The Greeks united in the cause of Menelaus, and took Troy after a siege of ten years. Afterwards, the kingdoms of Argos, Mycenæ, and Lacedæmon, were formed into one sovereignty under Orestes.

The Heraclidæ, or posterity of Hercules, having expelled Tisamenus, the son of Orestes, divided among them the countries which they had subdued, and of which Aristodemus obtained Lacedæmon. But Aristodemus dying about this time, his two sons, Euristhenes and Procles, succeeded to the sovereignty of Sparta, and neither divided the

* Now called Mistra.

kingdom between them, nor reigned alternately: they ruled conjointly, and with equal authority; and each was styled king of Sparta, and acknowledged in that capacity. This singular and seemingly inconsistent form of government continued upwards of eight hundred years.

Lycurgus, the tenth in descent from Hercules, received the sceptre on the death of his brother Polydectes, one of the kings of Sparta; but his sister-in-law proving pregnant, he resigned the crown, though she intimated to him, that, if he would marry her, the child should be destroyed. Lycurgus received the infant whilst at supper with some of the principal persons of the city, and presented him to them, saying, "My lords of Sparta, here is a king born to us." Then placing the child on the chair of state, and perceiving how much the company were overjoyed, he named him Charilaus, which signifies 'the people's joy.' However, finding that the queen and her partisans were extremely irritated at his conduct, he determined on a voluntary exile, and visited Crete, Egypt and Asia. At length, the Spartans invited him to return and regulate their government.

(B. C. 705.) Having first obtained the approbation and assistance of the Delphic oracle, Lycurgus promulgated his laws. His first act was to establish a senate, which was composed of twenty-eight members, whose office consisted in preserving a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. No matter which had not received the previous consent of the senate, could be brought before the assembly of the people; and, on the other hand, the judgment of the senate was not effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings presided in the senate. They were the generals of the republic; but they could not plan any enterprise, without the consent of a council of the citizens. They were merely the first citizens in the state, and enjoyed only the shadow of royalty.

The people had their assemblies, and possessed a nominal share in the government of Sparta; but as the senate convened and dismissed them at pleasure, and they held no offices in the state, their real power was very insignificant. In order, however, to depress the insolence, pride, and luxury, of the great and wealthy, and banish want and misery from the dwellings of the poor, Lycurgus divided all Laconia into thirty-nine thousand shares, of which nine

thousand were assigned to the city of Sparta. These portions could never be divided, but passed entire to the heirs of those who had acquired them.

Lycurgus withdrew all the silver and gold in circulation, and permitted only iron money to be given in exchange. This coin was made of iron heated in the fire, and quenched in vinegar, that it might be rendered brittle, and unfit for any other use. From that time all commerce with foreign nations was annihilated, and the ships of another country never entered the harbours of Laconia. Lycurgus even prohibited commerce to the Spartans, abolished all useless arts, and allowed those necessary to life to be practised only by the slaves.

The next ordinance was, that all, even the kings themselves, should make their principal repast at the public tables, where moderation and frugality were exercised. The meals were coarse and parsimonious; and the conversation was calculated to improve the youth in virtue, and cultivate a patriotic spirit.

All children, as soon as born, were commanded to be brought by their parents, that they might be examined by persons appointed for that purpose. Those that were well made and vigorous, were preserved; but such as were weak, or deformed, were exposed to perish at the foot of Mount Taygetus. As no Spartan was permitted to have his children educated according to his own pleasure, the boys at the age of seven years were sent to the public schools. Their education rejected all embellishments; and cherished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and death, and, above all, the love of glory and of their country.

The general excellence of the laws of Lycurgus was shaded by many blemishes. The Lacedæmonian women frequented the baths, and contended naked in the Palæstra promiscuously with the men; and this rendered their manners shamefully dissolute. Theft constituted a part of the education of the Spartans. Youth were taught to subdue the feelings of humanity; and the slaves were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred in sport and wantonness*.

* For a detailed account of the laws and civil government of Sparta, consult *Robinson's Antiquities of Greece*, Book II.

Lycurgus, having thus perfected, as he supposed, the form of the Lacedæmonian republic, endeavoured to render it stable and permanent. For this purpose, he obliged the Lacedæmonians by an oath to promise that they would observe his laws till his return from Delphi. From Delphi, he sent to Lacedæmon the following answer of the oracle: "The laws given to the Spartans are excellent; and the state, while it continues to observe them, shall be the most glorious and potent in the world." Lycurgus then voluntarily starved himself to death. Some, however, say, that he died in Crete, and commanded his ashes to be thrown into the sea, lest they should afterwards be carried to Sparta, and the Lacedæmonians consider themselves as released from their oath.

Sparta was soon at war with the Messenians, a neighbouring people. This was equally cruel and unjust. In vain the Messenians offered to submit to the arbitration of the Amphictyons, or that of the Areopagus at Athens. During three years, the Spartans retained their resentment for a trifling injury, and fell unexpectedly on the frontier city of the Messenians (B. C. 752), and massacred all the inhabitants without distinction of age or sex. The Lacedæmonians were then governed by their king Nicander, the son of Charilaus, who commanded, or at least permitted, this act of barbarity.

In the reigns of Theodorus and Theopompus, the Messenians being continually defeated, consulted the oracle, which advised them to sacrifice to the gods a virgin of the royal blood. Lots were, therefore, cast, and fell on the daughter of Lyciscus; but she being considered as supposititious, Aristodemus voluntarily offered his own daughter as the devoted victim. Her lover, however, who was present, asserted that the marriage between them was consummated, and that she was not a virgin. This enraged Aristodemus so much, that he instantly slew her; and that he might vindicate the honour of his family, by proving the falsehood of the assertion, he caused the body to be dissected. Public rejoicings followed the sacrifice of this virgin; and the Messenians concluded that they should now be conquerors. The efforts of Aristodemus, however, could not prevent the Messenians from being frequently beaten; and they lost all their courage. Aristodemus finding things desperate, slew himself on the grave of his daughter

(B. C. 723); and the kingdom of Messenia became tributary to Sparta, and submitted to some very severe conditions.

About this time were instituted the Ephori, who were five in number, and chosen by the people from their own body, and who gradually acquired an unlimited authority. They presided in the general assemblies, declared war, made peace, determined the number of troops to be raised, regulated the taxes, and distributed, in the name of the state, punishments and rewards. In short, their power, though in some respects subordinate, was in others paramount even to that of the kings and the senate.

During the absence of the Lacedæmonians from Sparta, in the Messenian war, their wives sent to represent to them how much they neglected the city. In consequence of this message, the Spartans decreed, that the Lacedæmonian youths who were under age, and had not bound themselves by an oath not to return till the termination of the war, should repair to Sparta, and associating themselves promiscuously with the young women, preserve the city from falling into decay. The offspring of this intercourse, finding themselves contemned by the other citizens, joined in a revolt with the Helotes or slaves, some of whom, dreading the consequences, divulged the conspiracy. They were, therefore, permitted, under the conduct of their leader Phalantus, to sail to Italy, where they settled, and founded the city of Tarentum.

(B. C. 685.) The conditions imposed on the Messenians were so oppressive, that they revolted, and took for their general Aristomenes, who defeated the Lacedæmonians in a long and bloody engagement. The Spartans, by advice of the oracle, sought a leader from the Athenians, who sent them Tyræus, a schoolmaster and poet, lame of one foot, and suspected of insanity. However, he encouraged them by his poems, directed them by his counsels, and recruited their armies by men chosen from the Helotes. The Messenians were defeated; and their general Aristomenes was taken prisoner, and thrown into a deep cavern amid the dead and the dying. However, he contrived to make his escape by means of a fox, which he seized by the tail, and followed till he came to a small crevice, through which he forced himself. After a siege protracted to the eleventh year, Ira, the capital of Messenia, was taken, and that country annexed to the Spartan territory (B. C. 664).

(B. C. 480.) When Xerxes threatened the liberties of Greece, Leonidas, the Spartan king, being prepared to devote his life to the safety of his country, went with a few followers to oppose the immense army of Persia. "I pretend," said he, "to defend the straits of Thermopylæ; but in truth I go to die for my country." When he reviewed the three hundred who accompanied him, and perceived that many of them had not attained the age of manhood, he would have dismissed some of them, under the pretext of sending advice to the Ephori. They, however, penetrating his design, refused to depart, one of them answering, "Sir, I came to serve you as a soldier, not as a courier;" and another saying, "Let us fight first, sir, and after that I will carry your account of the battle." The victory over these few brave Spartans, all of whom fell in the defence of their country, cost the Persians twenty thousand men.

(B. C. 479.) Pausanias, after his celebrated victory of Plata, entered the tent of Mardonius, the Persian general, and ordered the cooks to prepare an entertainment composed of all the delicacies of Asia, and also directed his own table to be served in the Spartan manner. He then addressed himself to the Greeks around him, and said, "See, my friends, the folly of this king of the Medes, who being able to feast thus sumptuously at home, has come so far to despoil the Greeks, who fare so hardly!" Pausanias, however, was afterwards corrupted by the luxury which he had contemned, and acquiring a taste for Asiatic customs, was induced to listen to the Persians, who offered to render him sovereign of Greece. But his plots were discovered, and he took refuge in the temple of Pallas, the door of which being blocked up with stones, he died of hunger.

(B. C. 426.) Agis was considered as a great politician, and was wont to say, "If we would rule many, we must fight many." In his reign appeared two celebrated generals, Callicratidas and Lysander. The disinterestedness and patriotism of the former exceeded all praise; and he died like a hero, as he had lived. Lysander took Athens, and completely subjected the Athenians. He destroyed the walls and fortifications of their city, burned their ships, and carried back to Lacedæmon his fleet laden with riches. The Spartans determined that the state might make use of the gold and silver, but that no individual should possess either of these metals under pain of death.

On the demise of Agis, Lysander assisted in placing on the throne Agesilaus, the younger brother of the deceased king. This prince, though ambitious and brave, was mild and amiable, and combined valour and pride with goodness. His patriotism was such, that he preferred the interests of his country to his own personal safety and tranquillity. His virtues alarmed the Ephori, who condemned him to pay a fine, because he had too much conciliated the affections of the people. He led an army into Asia, and was at the head of the Grecian league against the Persians. It is probable, however, that even the victories of Agesilaus were detrimental to Sparta.

Between Agesilaus and Lysander there existed a coolness, which was produced by jealousy; but these two great men, who were not formed to be enemies, continued to act in concert for the honour of their country. Lysander was killed fighting against the Thebans. Though he had a thousand opportunities of enriching himself, yet he died poor, and left his daughter without a portion.

(B. C. 370.) The war against the Bœotians, whose capital was Thebes, originated in a trifling cause: it was, however, carried on with vigour; and the Lacedæmonians being defeated in the plains of Leuctra, suffered a loss unexampled in the history of their republic. When the news of this discomfiture reached Sparta, the Ephori were superintending the gymnastic solemnities, and, being unwilling to interrupt or adjourn the festival, sent information to the relatives of those who had fallen in the battle. On this occasion, the magnanimity of the Spartans shone forth in all its lustre. The fathers, mothers, and relatives of those who had been slain, mutually embraced and congratulated each other; while the friends of those who had escaped from the battle, hid themselves among the women, or appeared in tattered clothes, with their arms folded, and their eyes fixed on the ground. They, who had fled from the engagement, should have been degraded from their honours, condemned to appear in garments of different colours, and with their beards half-shaved, and without resistance, to suffer any one to beat them; but as the execution of this sentence might in the present instance have been attended with danger, Agesilaus proposed as follows: "Let the laws," said he, "sleep for this day, and resume their authority to-

morrow;" by which means he preserved to the state the institutions of Lycurgus entire, as well as the obnoxious persons from infamy.

Epaminondas, the Theban general, appeared before the proud city of Sparta, from which the fires of an enemy's camp had never before been discernible; but Agesilaus took such well-concerted measures for the defence of the city, that the Thebans were obliged to retire. Epaminondas, however, again attempted to surprise Sparta (B. C. 362), which was left in a defenceless state by the departure of Agesilaus with the Lacedæmonian troops; but being warmly received by the old men, women, and boys, whom Archidamus, the son of Agesilaus, had placed in advantageous situations, he was a second time compelled to retire.

The Lacedæmonians were never able to recover that reputation and influence which they lost in the Theban war. Agesilaus died at the age of eighty-four, covered with glory by his military achievements; but he was censurable for having engaged his country in ruinous and destructive wars. He was succeeded by his son Archidamus (B. C. 361), who, when Philip king of Macedon valued himself on the victories which he had gained, sent him word, that, "if he measured his shadow, he would find it no longer than before." To Archidamus succeeded his son Agis (B. C. 346), who gloriously fell in an engagement with the Macedonians.

(B. C. 337.) On the death of Agis, his son Eudamidas, who was a prince of great wisdom, moderation, and gentleness, ascended the Spartan throne. He had for his colleague Cleomenes, the son of Cleombrotus. Archidamus succeeded his father Eudamidas; and Areus, his grandfather Cleomenes, but not without much opposition from his uncle Cleonymus, who aspired to the throne. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, took the part of Cleonymus, and arrived at Lacedæmon before the inhabitants knew of his march, but deferred to enter the city till the next day. In the mean time the Spartans held a consultation, and would have sent the women to Crete; but this determination being known, they deputed Archidamia to carry their sentiments to the senate. She entered with a sword in her hand, and said, "Do not entertain so mean an opinion of the Spartan women, as to imagine that they will survive the liberty of their country. Tell us only what we are to do, and we will undertake any thing for the service of Sparta." By

their assistance, Pyrrhus was repulsed with great loss, and compelled to retreat; and attempting to pillage Argos on his return, he was killed by a tile, which struck him on his head, and which was thrown by an old woman, who saw, from the roof of the house, the king raise his sword against her son.

Agis, the son of Eudamidas, was a prince of great expectations, who had for his colleague Leonidas, the son of Cleonymus. The latter having passed several years at the brilliant and voluptuous court of Seleucus, had brought with him to Sparta a taste for luxury. On the other hand, Agis, at the age of twenty, renounced pleasure, lived like an old Spartan, and determined to attempt the re-establishment of the ancient discipline.

An Ephorus, named Opytadeus, thought that, under such a king as Leonidas, an opportunity offered of repealing the law of Lycurgus, which deprived the citizens of the liberty of disposing of their lands by gift, sale, or will. Though the infraction of this law had not been authorized, yet it had been continually violated, and the lands were in the possession of about a hundred families. However, when Opytadeus brought forward his motion in favour of the rich, Lysander, another Ephorus, who in this matter acted according to the design of Agis, proposed that all debtors should be discharged by an act of insolvency, that there should be a new distribution of the lands, and that, as the number of ancient families had decreased, the vacancy should be supplied by a kind of adoption of the youth of the adjacent countries, who should be subjected to the exercises, diet, and discipline of Lycurgus. This proposition, which must have been very agreeable to the poor, was prevented from passing into a law, only by a single vote of the senate.

Lysander instituted a prosecution against Leonidas for having married a foreign woman, and that king sought an asylum in the temple of Minerva. Upon this, his son-in-law, Cleombrotus, demanded and obtained the crown. Agis and Cleombrotus immediately agreed with respect to the abolition of debts and the division of lands; but, on the suggestions of Agesilaus, the uncle of Agis, whose estate was burdened with debt, they resolved to attempt only one operation at a time, and to burn the obligations first. The artful Agesilaus, who now possessed his large and valuable estate unincumbered with debts, found means

to defer the division of the lands; and a war taking place, Agis was obliged to leave Lacedæmon. During his absence, Agesilaus governed as Ephorus, and was guilty of so many acts of violence and injustice, that the people expelled him, and recalled Leonidas. When Agis returned, he took refuge in the temple of Minerva, but being betrayed by some of his friends, he was thrown into prison, condemned, and put to death, together with his mother Agesistrata, and his grandmother Archidamia. Cleombrotus obtained his life at the intercession of his wife Chelonis, who was the daughter of Leonidas.

(B. C. 223.) On the death of Leonidas, his son Cleomenes ascended the Spartan throne. He possessed an ardent passion for glory, united with great temperance and simplicity of manners. His reign commenced with victories, which caused him to be feared by the Ephori, who were apprehensive that the splendour of his success should give him too much influence with the people. Having signalized himself by achievements worthy of a Lacedæmonian prince, he returned towards Sparta, and sent before him a body of troops to rid him of the Ephori, four of whom were killed, and the fifth made his escape.

On the morrow, Cleomenes entered the forum, and ordered all the chairs of the Ephori to be removed, except one, which he reserved for himself. He then apologised to the people for what he had done, shewed the necessity of restoring the institutions of Lycurgus, and protested that he would allow himself only one violent measure more, which was the banishment of eighty citizens, whose names he caused to be fixed up. He was the first to deliver up his whole property to the public stock, in which he was followed by his father-in-law and other friends. In dividing the lands, he assigned shares to all whom he had banished, promising to recall them as soon as was consistent with the public safety. To shew his dislike to tyranny, he associated with him his brother Euclidas in the kingdom. He restored the ancient Lacedæmonian custom of educating youth, of eating in public, and of performing their exercises together. With respect to luxury, he gave the example which he prescribed. He possessed neither rich habits nor costly furniture, but in every thing he preserved the ancient austerity.

Unhappily, a rivalry arose between Cleomenes and Aratus the Achæan chief, and, notwithstanding the exertions and

abilities of their king, the Lacedæmonians, enfeebled by former wars, were unsuccessful. Cleomenes had recourse to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, who assisted him on his sending his mother and children as hostages. He was, however, defeated by Antigonus, king of Macedon, and obliged to fly from Sparta, and take refuge in Egypt (B. C. 216), where he and his followers were imprisoned by Ptolemy. As they despaired of escaping, they killed each other; and Ptolemy caused the mother of Cleomenes, and the remainder of his family, to be put to death soon after.

After the fatal battle with Antigonus, Sparta fell into the hands of the Macedonians, who suffered the Lacedæmonians to elect Agesipolis, the grandson of Cleombrotus, and Lycurgus, for their kings. The latter expelled the former (B. C. 207), and being himself obliged to fly, left the throne to Machanidas, who annihilated the power of the Ephori, and was killed fighting against the Achæans.

(B. C. 206.) Soon after the death of Machanidas, Sparta groaned under the bondage of Nabis, who is represented as the most odious of tyrants, and who was actuated by a violent spirit of avarice. He banished most of the wealthy citizens from Sparta, that he might seize their riches; and many he caused to be assassinated. He invented a machine in the form of a statue resembling his wife, the breast, arms, and hands of which were full of pegs of iron, covered with magnificent garments. If any one refused to give him money, he was introduced to this machine, which, by means of certain springs, caught fast hold of him, and obliged him to grant whatever Nabis required. However, under the government of this tyrant, Sparta recovered some portion of her ancient splendour, and, by her victories, compelled the Achæans to request the assistance of the Romans. Titus Quintus Flaminius marched against Lacedæmon, which greatly alarmed Nabis, who feared the enemies he had in the city. A powerful league was formed against him, at the head of which were the Ætolians. They surprised Sparta, and killed Nabis (B. C. 192); and that state joined the Achæan confederacy, but without taking its place among the Grecian republics.

Questions on the History of Lacedæmon, or Sparta.

What was this country denominated, and where situated? Where stood the city of Sparta, and what is it now called? What was the character of the Lacedæmonians?

What was at first the form of the Spartan or Lacedæmonian government? For what was Helen famous, by whom was she seduced, and whither carried? By whom was Menelaus assisted, and when was Troy taken? What kingdoms were formed into one sovereignty under Orestes?

What countries did the Heraclidæ divide among them, and who obtained Lacedæmon? By whom was Aristodemus succeeded, in what manner did they reign, and how long continued this singular form of government?

When did Lycurgus receive the sceptre, why did he resign it, and what was the offer of his sister-in-law? What said Lycurgus to some of the principal persons of Sparta, when he presented the infant king to them, and what name did he give to the child? Why did Lycurgus determine on a voluntary banishment, and what induced him to return to Sparta?

What did Lycurgus before he promulgated his laws? What did he first establish, and what was the office of the senate? What were the power and duty of the kings?

What power did the people possess? For what purpose, and into what shares, did Lycurgus divide all Laconia? Could these shares or portions be divided?

What kind of money only did Lycurgus permit to be used? How was this coin made, and from what time was commerce with foreign nations annihilated? To whom only did Lycurgus allow the arts necessary to life to be practised?

Who were to dine at the public tables, and what was the nature of the meals, and of the conversation?

By whom were children, as soon as born, examined, and how disposed of? At what age were the boys sent to the public schools, and in what consisted their education?

What blemishes appeared in the laws of Lycurgus, and what rendered the manners of the Spartan women dissolute? Of what did theft form a part; what feelings were youth taught to subdue; and how were the slaves treated?

How did Lycurgus endeavour to render the form of the republic stable and permanent, and what did he oblige the Lacedæmonians to promise by an oath? What answer of the oracle at Delphi did Lycurgus send to Lacedæmon? What was the death of Lycurgus?

With whom was Sparta soon at war? To whose arbitration did the Messenians offer to submit, and what did the Spartans do to the frontier city of the Messenians? Under whose government were the Spartans at that time?

In the reigns of Theodorus and Theopompus, what advice did the oracle give to the Messenians? On whom did the lot fall, and who voluntarily offered his own daughter? Why did Aristodemus slay his daughter, and by what was this sacrifice followed? What was the result of the efforts of Aristodemus, where did he slay himself, and when did the kingdom of Messenia become tributary to Sparta?

What were the Ephori, and when instituted? What were their office and power?

What representation was sent to the Lacedæmonians by their wives, during their absence in the Messenian war? Whom did the Spartans decree should repair to Sparta, and for what purpose? What was the conduct of the offspring of this intercourse, and whither were they permitted to sail?

Did the Messenians again revolt, and whom did they take for their

general? Whom did the Spartans receive as their leader, and in what manner did Tyrtæus assist them? Were the Messenians defeated, and what became of their general Aristomenes? How did Aristomenes escape from the cavern, and when was Eira, the capital of Messenia, taken?

When Xerxes threatened the liberties of Greece, who went with a few followers to oppose the immense army of Persia? What was the observation of Leonidas on this occasion? For what reason, and under what pretext, would Leonidas have dismissed some of his three hundred followers, and what were the answers which they returned? What number of men did the victory over these few Spartans cost the Persians?

After his victory at Platæa, what were the entertainments which Pausanias ordered to be prepared, and in what words did he address the Greeks? Was Pausanias afterwards corrupted by luxury, and induced to listen to the offers of the Persians? What was the manner of his death?

What was the character of Agis, and what was he wont to say? What celebrated generals appeared in his reign, and what was the character of Callicratidas? What were the achievements of Lysander, and what did the Spartans determine respecting the gold and silver which he brought from Athens?

On the death of Agis, whom did Lysander assist in placing on the throne, and what was the character of Agesilaus? For what did the Ephori impose a fine on Agesilaus? Whither did Agesilaus lead an army, and were his victories detrimental to Sparta?

Between Agesilaus and Lysander what did jealousy produce? How was Lysander killed, and in what circumstances did he die?

Whence originated the war against the Boeotians, how was it carried on, and in what plains were the Lacedæmonians defeated? In what manner was the news of this great discomfiture received at Sparta by the Ephori, and by the friends of the slain and of those who had escaped? What was the proposal of Agesilaus in regard to those who had fled from the engagement, and what did he thereby preserve?

Who appeared before the proud city of Sparta, and by whose measures were the Thebans obliged to retire? Did Epaminondas make another attempt to surprise Sparta, and by whom was it repelled?

Did the Lacedæmonians ever recover their reputation and influence? At what age died Agesilaus, and what was his character? By whom was he succeeded, and what word did Archidamus send to Philip king of Macedon? By whom was Archidamus succeeded, and how died Agis?

By whom was Agis succeeded, and who was his colleague? By whom was Eudamidas succeeded, and by whom Cleomenes? Whom did Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, endeavour to place on the throne? When Pyrrhus was before Sparta, whither would the Spartans have sent the women, and what said Archidamia to the senate, with a sword in her hand? By whose assistance was Pyrrhus compelled to retire, and where and in what manner was he killed?

What was the character of Agis, the son of Eudamidas, and what that of his colleague Leonidas, the son of Cleonymus?

What did Opytadeus, an Ephorus, think this an opportunity for effecting? Had the law of Lycurgus been violated? How was the motion of Opytadeus met by Lysander, another Ephorus, and what was the proposition of the latter? By what was the proposition of Lysander prevented from passing into a law?

Why did Leonidas seek an asylum in the temple of Minerva, and who demanded and obtained the crown? On what did Agis and Cleombrotus agree, and how was this agreement rendered injurious? Did Agesilaus defer the division of the lands, and was Agis obliged to leave Lacedæmon? How did Agesilaus govern as an Ephorus, and was Leonidas recalled? What was the fate of Agis and his family, and how did Cleombrotus obtain his life?

By whom was Leonidas succeeded, and what was his character? Why was Cleomenes feared by the Ephori, and how did he rid himself of these magistrates?

What chairs of the Ephori did Cleomenes remove from the forum, and what did he say to the people? What was his conduct, and that of his family, in delivering up their whole property to the public stock? How did he divide the lands, and whom did he associate with him in the kingdom? What customs did Cleomenes restore, and did he give the example which he enjoined?

What contest arose between Cleomenes and Aratus the Achæan chief, and what were its consequences? Who assisted Cleomenes, and where did he take refuge? What was his fate, and that of his family?

When Sparta fell into the hands of the Macedonians, who were elected kings? What was the fate of Agesipolis and Lycurgus, and what the conduct of Machanidas?

What were the character and conduct of Nabis? What machine did he invent, and to what use was it appropriated? Under Nabis, did Sparta recover any of her ancient splendour? Who marched against Lacedæmon, and what league was formed against Nabis? What was the fate of Nabis, and of Sparta?

ELIS.

It is supposed, that the inhabitants of Elis were the descendants of Elishah, the son of Javan, and grandson of Japhet. They and the Arcadians boasted that they were aborigines of Peloponnesus, or settled in that country from the time of the deluge, without any mixture of foreigners. Elis was situated in the western part of Peloponnesus, having the Ionian Sea on the west, Arcadia on the east, Achaia on the north, and the bay of Cyparissos, with Messenia, on the south.

In Elis was the city of Olympia, which was situated on the Olympian plains, where were celebrated the Olympic games, instituted by Pelops in honour of Jupiter. These games have furnished chronologists with an æra, and with authentic dates.* The people of Elis and Pisa long contended for the right of celebrating these games, which was finally adjudged to the former.

* The Olympic games were renewed by Iphitus 776 years before Christ, and from that period the Greeks regulated their time by Olympiads, each of which comprehended a space of four years.

Questions on the History of Elis.

From whom were the inhabitants of Elis descended, and what did they and the Arcadians boast themselves to be? Where was Elis situated?

Where was the city of Olympia? What have the Olympic games furnished to chronologists? When did the Greeks first reckon by Olympiads? Who contended for the right of celebrating those games?

LOCRI AND DORIS.

LOCRI. The inhabitants of this country were divided into three tribes; the Locri Ozolæ or Epizephyrii, the Locri Epicnemidii, and the Locri Opuntii. They were a brave and warlike people, and signalized themselves in maintaining the liberty of Greece.

DORIS. Doris was bounded on the north by Thessaly; on the south by Phocis and part of Ætolia; on the east by Locris and the river Pindus; and on the west by Epirus, Acarnania, and the river Achelous. This country abounded with spacious and fertile plains; and the air was mild and salubrious. Though the Dorians inhabited a mountainous district, yet they were a polite people, and good orators, poets, and musicians. They gave name to the Doric dialect, to the Doric music, and to the Doric order of architecture.

Questions on the History of Locris and Doris.

How were the inhabitants of Locris divided, what was their character, and in what did they signalize themselves?

How was Doris bounded, and what were its productions and climate? What was the character of the people, and to what did they give name?

ACHAIA PROPRIA.

This country was bounded on the east by Sicyon, on the west by the Ionian Sea, on the south by the kingdom of Elis and Arcadia, and on the north by the bay of Corinth. Achaia, which was originally of small account, gradually rose to such a height of reputation and prosperity, as to rival, and even eclipse, the most powerful states of Greece. This preponderance was not owing to the great numbers, or extraordinary valour of its inhabitants, but to the wisdom

of its laws and constitution. After having shaken off the yoke of their kings, the Achæans formed the plan of a democratic government, which all the cities of their small republic adopted in such a manner, that, though these cities were united into one body, they possessed their respective liberties, and were independent of each other. The Achæans were joined together by a firm alliance, and governed by the same laws. They had the same money, weights, and measures, the same magistrates, council, and judges, and, in short, every thing was so uniform, that all Achaia seemed to be only one city. This induced many of the Peloponnesians to adopt their form of government, and accede to the Achæan league.

This form of government continued from the expulsion of Gyges, the last king of Achaia, to the time of Alexander the Great, after whose death, the Achæans being involved in all the calamities inseparable from discord, began to revive their ancient union, and return to their former association (B. C. 280). The inhabitants of Patræ and Dyme afforded the first examples of this change. They were followed by those of other cities; but the Achæan league acquired no remarkable strength till the counsels and achievements of Aratus had given it consistency. Aratus was a native of Sicyon, and, at the age of twenty years, rescued his country from tyranny, and restored to the inhabitants the enjoyment of their former liberties. He induced Sicyon to join the Achæan league, and eight years after took, by surprise, Acro-Corinth and the city of Megara, from the Macedonians, and united them to the Achæans. He also prevailed on the cities of Trœzene, Epidauris, and Megalopolis, to join the alliance.

All the cities subject to the Achæan league were governed by the great council, or general assembly of the nation. To this assembly, each of the confederate cities sent a certain number of deputies, who were elected by a majority of votes. This assembly enacted laws, disposed of the vacant employments, declared war, made peace, and concluded alliances. The chief magistrate of the whole league was chosen in a general assembly by a majority of votes. His employment was both civil and military. He was assisted by ten magistrates, called demiurgi, who in the absence of the president, had the whole management of civil affairs, and even might, in some extraordinary cases, summon the general assembly, without waiting for the

stated time of its meeting. No prince, state, or city, could be admitted into the league, without the consent of the whole alliance. No member of the assembly was to accept of presents from foreign princes. The general assembly was not to sit longer than three days.

The Lacedæmonians having built a fortress in the territory of the Megalopolitans, were declared enemies by the Achæan assembly (B. C. 225). Upon which, a war commenced between the Spartans and Ætolians on the one side, and the Achæans on the other. The latter being reduced to great extremity, requested the assistance of Antigonus, king of Macedon, by whose aid Cleomenes, the Spartan king, was completely defeated and ruined.

Afterwards the Ætolians ravaged the territories of the Messenians, who belonged to the league. Aratus attacked the Ætolians (B. C. 221), under great disadvantages, and was defeated with such slaughter, that he advised the Achæans to call for the assistance of Philip, king of Macedon. Philip immediately set out for Greece, but while his troops laid waste Ætolia, the Ætolians ravaged Macedon, and all was in confusion. During the time that Philip was in Greece, Apelles, to whom the king had committed the affairs of his government, and who was displeased at the esteem which his master testified for Aratus, rendered many well-concerted projects abortive, and caused a mutiny in the army. Philip, therefore, ordered Apelles to be arrested and put to death.

The calamities which these wars occasioned induced all parties, and particularly Philip himself, to wish for peace, which was at length concluded. Hannibal, however, soon engaged Philip to take part against the Romans; and the Macedonian monarch, that he might render himself useful to his new ally, was desirous of subjecting all Greece, and seized on Ithone, a strong place in Messenia. Aratus, not approving of this conquest, spoke frankly on the subject to the king, and displeased Philip. He, therefore, retired to Sicyon, where Philip, fearing the opposition which he might make to his ambitious projects, procured a slow poison to be given him, the effects of which appeared only as the symptoms of an ordinary malady. This great and virtuous man, the chief support of the Achæan league, was greatly lamented by the Sicyonians (B. C. 216), who honoured his obsequies by hymns, odes, and funereal games, and decreed that divine honours should be paid to him.

(B. C. 209.) The Ætolians having joined the Romans against Philip, the Achæans, whose troops were then commanded by Philopœmen, espoused the cause of the king of Macedon. Philopœmen signalized himself in an extraordinary manner, and was so successful, that a general peace was concluded on terms very advantageous to the Achæans and their ally (B. C. 204). This peace, however, was not of long continuance. Contrary to the terms of the treaty, Philip invaded the Rhodians and the Athenians; and was, therefore, attacked by the Romans, who had the address to procure the alliance of the Achæans.

(B. C. 196.) The Romans and Achæans were so successful against Philip, that they obliged him to accept of a peace on such conditions as they thought proper to impose. The principal article was, that the king of Macedon should evacuate all the places which he possessed in Greece. From acting the part of an ally, Flaminius, the Roman general, according to the haughty genius of his nation, passed to that of a protector. At the celebration of the Isthmian games, when deputies from all parts of Greece were assembled, he caused the following decree to be proclaimed: "The senate and people of Rome, and Quintus Flaminius pro-consul, after having conquered Philip, and given peace to Macedon, declare the Corinthians, the Phocæans, the Locrians, the Eubœans, the Magnesians, the Thessalians, the Perrhæbians, the Achæans, and the Phthiotes, entirely free. All these nations shall live in an independent state, and be governed only by their own laws."

This general liberty strengthened the Achæan league with several new allies, and among others with Lacedæmon, which Philopœmen delivered from the cruel tyranny of Nabis. When the Spartans offered the Achæan chief a considerable sum of money from the riches found in the palace of that usurper, he generously refused it, and told them they might always rely on his friendship, which should cost them nothing. Under the conduct of Philopœmen, the Achæan league maintained itself, notwithstanding the secret efforts of the Romans, who being jealous of its great power, endeavoured to subvert and destroy it. At length, Philopœmen was defeated and taken prisoner by the Messenians, who caused him to drink a dose of poison (B. C. 183). Thus died one of the greatest heroes that Greece ever produced. To his valour and prudence,

Achaia was chiefly indebted for her glory, which, after his death, began to decline; and hence he has been called the last of the Greeks. Most of the cities of Greece erected some trophy to his memory.

The Romans courted the favour of the Achæans so long as they feared that they should succour Perses, king of Macedon; but when that prince was conquered, they were at no pains to disguise their intentions, but openly commenced those acts of injustice, which finally rendered them masters of Greece. They excited the different cities against each other, suborned the slaves against their masters, kept infamous informers in pay, and soon it became a crime to have failed in attachment to the interest of Rome. They drew up lists of proscribed persons, and sent commissioners, who were appointed to carry their secret sentence into execution. In a public assembly of the Achæans, one of the commissioners insolently required, that all those who had assisted Perses should be previously condemned, and then he would name them. But the people refusing to act so unjust and dishonourable a part, he accused more than a thousand in number, all men of distinguished merit, and ordered them to appear and plead their cause before the Roman senate. When they arrived in Italy, they were distributed in different cities, and kept as closely confined as if they had been already condemned; and when the council of Achaia sent deputies to Rome to require that their cause might be heard, the senate answered with equal treachery and falsehood, that they had been found guilty in Achaia. At length, after an imprisonment of seventeen years, these wretched exiles were permitted to return to their own country.

On the arrival in Greece of the deputies who survived, they found Achaia split into different factions, and the minds of the common people entirely estranged from the Romans. This aversion was artfully fomented by the chief magistrates, and the principal men of the republic, who were professed enemies to Rome. Such an universal hatred soon broke out into open war. An engagement took place under the walls of Corinth. The Achæans were defeated with incredible slaughter; and Dæus, their commander, sought refuge in the city of Megalopolis, where he killed his wife to prevent her from falling into the hands of the enemy, and then took poison of which he died. On the third day after the action, Mummius, the victorious general, entered Co-

ninth, and, with the exception only of the statues and pictures intended for his triumph, gave up the city, abounding with all the accommodations and ornaments of a wealthy metropolis, to be plundered by his soldiers. The walls were then razed, and the city reduced to ashes; and with Coriath fell the Achæan league (B.C. 146), of which it was the capital. The Romans abolished the popular government in all the cities, which, however, were permitted to retain their own laws, under the inspection of a prætor; and thus Greece became a Roman province, and was subjected to an annual tribute.

Questions on the History of Achaia Propria.

How was Achaia Propria bounded? To what height of reputation and prosperity did it rise, and to what was this owing? What was the plan of democratic government among the Achæans? How were they joined together, and governed, and what uniformity prevailed throughout Achaia? What induced many of the Peloponnesians to accede to the Achæan league?

What length of time did this form of government continue, and when was it restored? Who were the first examples of this change, and when did the Achæan league acquire any remarkable strength? Who was Aratus, and what service did he render his country? What cities did Aratus induce to join the Achæan league?

How were the cities subject to the Achæan league governed, and of what members was the assembly composed? What were the duties of the assembly, and how was the chief magistrate chosen? What was his employment, and by whom was he assisted? How were cities admitted into the league, from what were the members of the assembly prohibited, and how long did the general assembly sit?

For what were the Lacedæmonians declared enemies by the Achæan league? Between whom did a war commence, and what was the consequence to Cleomenes, the Spartan king?

Why did Aratus afterwards attack the Ætolians, and whose assistance did the Achæans call for? During the absence of Philip from Macedon, what did the Ætolians, and what were the conduct and fate of Apelles?

What induced all parties to wish for peace? In what did Hannibal engage Philip, and what place did the Macedonian monarch seize? How did Aratus displease Philip, and what were the effects of his displeasure? How was Aratus lamented and honoured by the Ætolians?

Under whom did the Achæans espouse the cause of the king of Macedon, and what was the success of Philip's arms? How was the peace broken, and with whom were the Achæans allied?

On what conditions did the Romans and Achæans oblige Philip to accept of peace? From an ally what did Flaminius, the Roman general, become, and what decree did he cause to be proclaimed at the celebration of the Isthmian games?

How did the general liberty strengthen the Achæan league; from

what did Philopœmen deliver Lacedæmon; and what did the Achæan chief refuse? How did the Achæan league maintain itself under the conduct of Philopœmen, and by whom was this chief defeated and put to death? What was the character of Philopœmen; to what was Achæa chiefly indebted for her glory, what has Philopœmen been called; and how was he honoured?

How long, and for what purpose, did the Romans court the favours of the Achæans? What acts of injustice did the Romans commit, to render themselves masters of Greece, and what did one of the commissioners require in a public assembly of the Achæans? What number of persons did the commissioner accuse, and how were they treated in Italy? What was the answer of the Roman senate to the deputies sent by the council of Achæa, and when were the exiles permitted to return to their own country?

When the deputies arrived in Greece, what was the state of Achæa, and how was the aversion of the people fomented so as to produce a war with the Romans? Where did an engagement take place, and what was the result? When did the Roman general enter Corinth, and what was the fate of that city? How did the Romans treat all the cities, and to what was Greece subjected?

ÆTOLIA.

ÆTOLIA derived its name from Ætolus, the son of Endymion, and brother of Epeus, whom he succeeded in the kingdom of Elis. This small tract of territory was bounded on the east by Locris, Phocis, and Ozolæa; on the west by Acarnania; on the north by Doris, and part of Epirus; and on the south by the bay of Corinth. The inhabitants were a stout and warlike people, who were seldom at peace with their neighbours, and signalized themselves by irruptions into the surrounding states.

The republic of Ætolia was next in power to that of Achæa, and formed on the same plan, being governed by a general assembly, a prætor, and other magistrates of inferior rank and authority. The Ætolian confederacy was formed some time after that of the Achæans, whose example they followed, uniting several cities, which before were independent of each other, and by that means enabling themselves to oppose the attempts of the Macedonian princes, who aspired to the sovereignty of all Greece.

(B. C. 209.) The Ætolians were the first of the Greeks who suffered themselves to be persuaded by the perfidious insinuations of the Romans, to enter into an alliance with them against Philip, king of Macedon. When they hoped that the Romans would assist them in prosecuting the war,

that they should have nothing more to fear from the Macedonians, they found themselves deceived by their faithless allies, who, thinking it their interest to make peace, concluded a treaty with Philip without regarding the danger to which they exposed the Ætolians (B. C. 196), or the terms agreed on at the commencement of hostilities.

Dissatisfied with the conduct of the Romans, and the peace which had been concluded, the Ætolians passed a decree, that Antiochus, king of Syria, should be called into Europe, to restore Greece (B. C. 192), which was oppressed by the Romans, to its ancient liberty. Accordingly, that monarch arrived in Greece with an army of ten thousand foot, five hundred horse, and six elephants. His exertions, however, did not equal the hopes of the allies. He forgot, during many valuable months, Rome, Greece, and Syria, and passed his time in the company of a very young wife, whom he married at an advanced age. At length, Antiochus was roused from his lethargy by the successes of the Romans, who drove him from post to post, and, after a considerable defeat, obliged him to embark his troops.

The Ætolians, being thus abandoned by the king of Syria, took refuge in their cities, which they defended with great vigour and resolution. They endeavoured to obtain an accommodation with Rome, whither they sent ambassadors; but the senate proposed an alternative, that they should either submit to the will of the Romans, or pay the republic a thousand talents, and neither make peace nor commence war, without the approbation of Rome. The Ætolians did not possess so much money, and if they implicitly submitted to the will of the senate, they were persuaded, that Rome would not be content with that which they were willing to grant.

The Romans, therefore, took Lamia and other places, and commenced the siege of Ambracia, which was the last strong hold of the Ætolian republic (B. C. 189). This city resisted, for a long time, all the stratagems and machines, which the Romans employed against it. At length, the whole nation of the Ætolians was obliged to submit; give up all prisoners and deserters; pay a heavy fine; deliver forty hostages at the choice of the victors; and, in fine, yield to all the most humiliating and oppressive conditions that could be imposed on a conquered and an enslaved people.

The Ætolians remained in a state of absolute slavery till the destruction of the Achæan league, when they followed the destinies of the other Grecian states.

Questions on the History of Ætolia.

From whom did Ætolia derive its name, and by what was it bounded? What was the character of the inhabitants?

What was the government of Ætolia, and when and in what manner was the Ætolian confederacy formed?

Who were the first of the Greeks to enter into an alliance with the Romans against Philip, king of Macedon, and how were they treated by their allies?

What decree did the Ætolians pass respecting Antiochus, king of Syria? What army did Antiochus bring into Greece, and what was his conduct? By what was he roused from his lethargy, and what was the result of his defeat?

Where did the Ætolians take refuge, and what were the terms of peace proposed to them by the Roman senate, and did they submit to those terms?

What city did the Romans besiege, and how long did Ambracia resist? To what conditions were the Ætolians at length obliged to submit?

Till what time did the Ætolians remain in a state of absolute slavery?

ACARNANIA.

ACARNANIA, which was situated between Ætolia and Epirus, was a free state, and governed by a prætor, a general assembly, and other subordinate magistrates of the same nature and authority as those of the Achæans and Ætolians. The Acarnanians were more attached, than the other Greeks, to the kings of Macedon, and chiefly to Philip the father of Perses. However, Lucius Flaminus, brother to Titus Flaminus, undertook to engage them to espouse the interests of the Romans, and thus to deprive Philip of his most faithful allies. Accordingly, a meeting was held in the city of Leucas, the capital of Acarnania, where the principal men of the nation, after warm disputes, drew up the plan of a confederacy with the Romans; but the people being violently prepossessed against them, openly protested, that they would not enter into any engagements prejudicial to the interests of Philip.

Lucius, who, in the commencement of the tumult, had retired from Leucas, resolved to reduce the Acarnanians

by force; and having made the necessary preparations, he sailed from Corcyra, and laid siege to Leucas. The inhabitants appeared on the walls, and made a vigorous resistance. They defended the place with such resolution, that the Romans were repulsed in three successive attacks. At length, some Italian exiles, who were well acquainted with the city, introduced a great body of Romans, who surrounded the Acarnanians, and put to the sword such as refused to submit. The reduction of the capital so terrified the whole nation, that they deserted Philip, and submitted to the Romans, who left them in possession of their own laws till the destruction of Corinth, when Acarnania became part of the province of Achaia.

Questions on the History of Acarnania.

How was Acarnania situated, and how governed? To whom were they much attached, and who undertook to engage them to espouse the interests of the Romans? Where, and by whom, was the plan of confederacy drawn up, and how was it received by the people?

Who laid siege to Leucas, and how was it defended? By what means was Leucas taken, and what were the consequences of its reduction?

IONIA.

IONIA, which derived its name from the Ionians*, who inhabited this part of Asia Minor, was bounded on the north by Æolia; on the west by the Ægean and Icarian seas; on the south by Caria; and on the east by Lydia, and part of Caria.

One of the most remarkable cities of Ionia was Phocæa, now called Foggia, which is situated on the sea shore, at a small distance from Smyrna. The inhabitants were expert mariners, and the first Greeks that undertook long voyages, which they performed in galleys of fifty oars. They sailed as far as Spain, and arriving at Tartessus, a city in the bay of Cadiz, were kindly treated by Arganthonius, king of that country, who presented them with a large sum of money for defraying the expences of fortifying their city against the attacks of Cyrus the Great. However, finding

* Ionians was an ancient name of the Greeks, which they received from Javan, the son of Japhet.

themselves unable to oppose the Persians with success, they embarked their wives, children, and all their riches, and sailed away to Chios; but the Chians not wishing to have them as neighbours, they returned to Phocæa, surprised the Persians, and put them to the sword. Fearing that they could not maintain possession of the place, they again set sail; but on the promise of an amnesty, more than one half of the fleet returned to Phocæa, and lived in subjection to the Persians, or to tyrants of their own. The remainder became pirates, and infested the coasts of Gaul, Italy, and Carthage, and finally settled in Cænotria, now Ponza, a small island in the Tyrrhenian sea.

Smyrna is situated on the Isthmus of the Ionian peninsula, and reckoned one of the largest and richest cities of the Levant. Velleius Paterculus, and Herodotus, suppose it to have been built by the Æolians. It distinguished itself by its attachment to the Romans, even in the time of their distress, and, especially during the greatest success of the Carthaginians. Smyrna is still very populous, and the centre of a very active commerce. Though the inhabitants were addicted to pleasure, yet they were brave and valiant.

Clazomenæ anciently stood on the continent, and was fortified by the Ionians to oppose the progress of the Persian arms. But the inhabitants were so terrified after the defeat of Cræsus, and the surrender of Sardis, that they withdrew to one of the neighbouring islands, and built a city of the same name, which Alexander joined to the continent by a causeway two hundred and fifty paces in length. The Romans declared the inhabitants a free people; and Augustus embellished this city with many stately buildings.

At Erythræ, a sybil gave her oracles. Teos was the native city of Anacreon. At Lebedus, games were annually performed in honour of Bacchus. Colophon was the birth-place of Menander, and even, as it pretended, of Homer; and Priene, that of Bias.

Ephesus, which, in the times of the Romans, was the metropolis of Asia Minor, acknowledged Lysimachus as its founder; for that prince having caused the ancient city to be demolished, built a new one in a more convenient place. The chief ornament of Ephesus was the celebrated temple of Diana, erected at the common charge of all the Asiatic states, and reckoned among the wonders of the world.

This great edifice was situated at the foot of a mountain, and the head of a marsh, that it might be less subject to earthquakes. In its structure, whole quarries were exhausted; and it was two hundred and twenty, or, as Pliny says, four hundred years in building. To secure the foundation of the conduits or sewers, which were to bear a building of such a prodigious weight, Pliny says they laid beds of charcoal well rammed, and upon them others of wool. This temple was four hundred and twenty-five feet in length, and two hundred in breadth, and was supported by one hundred and twenty-seven marble pillars, seventy feet high. The great Diana of the Ephesians was a small statue of ebony, which was found in the trunk of a tree, and believed to have been sent down from heaven by Jupiter. This temple was burned by one Herostratus, that his name might descend to posterity; and, therefore, the Ephesians passed a decree, forbidding any person to mention him. Ephesus was long the principal city of Ionia, and governed by kings, whose descendants, after it became a republic, enjoyed the privilege of wearing a scarlet cloak, a crown, and a sceptre. In the Mithridatic war, the Ephesians declared against the Romans, and murdered all of that nation whom they found in the city. The sanguinary Sylla punished this crime only by a fine.

The city of Miletus possessed a temple of Apollo and an oracle. In it was born Thales, one of the seven wise men, and the first that foretold an eclipse of the sun. Miletus successfully maintained, with its own forces, a war against four successive kings of Lydia. It was besieged, taken, and laid in ashes by the Persians, who carried away the inhabitants to Ampe, a city on the Red Sea, not far from the mouth of the Tigris: this event happened in the reign of Darius Hystaspes. The Milesians returned from their captivity, and rebuilt their city, but could never restore it to its former state of wealth and splendour. They were frequently subjected by domestic tyrants. Alexander restored to them their liberty; and the Romans granted them great privileges.

All these, with some others, composed what were called the twelve cities of the Ionian league, the laws of which are not known, but which united them against a common danger from any foreign power.

Æolis, which derived its name from the Æolians, who settled in this part of Asia, anciently comprehended all

Troas, and extended along the coast from Ionia to the Propontis. It contained ten, and, more anciently, eleven cities. The inhabitants of Pitane made bricks, which would swim in water like wood.

Doris, properly so called, was that large promontory of Caria, which juts into the sea opposite to the island of Telos. The principal city was Halicarnassus, famous for the mausoleum or tomb, which was built by queen Artemisia, in honour of her husband Mausolus, from whose name sepulchral monuments are called mausoleums. This was so magnificent a structure, that the ancients considered it one of the wonders of the world. Halicarnassus was the birth-place of the two celebrated historians, Herodotus and Dionysius, and of the poets Heraclitus and Callimachus. Cnidus was famous for the Venus of Praxiteles.

That the Ionians, Dorians, and Æolians, who settled in Asia Minor, were Greeks, cannot admit of a doubt. The Ionians were probably descended from a colony of Athenians. Their religion was the same with that of Greece. From a monarchical, they passed to a republican form of government. From being brave and hardy, they became voluptuous, effeminate, and superstitious, and fond of lascivious dances. They were first subdued by Cræsus, king of Lydia, and afterwards by the Persians. In the expedition against Greece, they revolted, and rejoined the Greeks. The Romans subjected them with the other Greeks. The Ionians afterwards massacred the Romans, and were punished by Sylla, who exacted such heavy fines and taxes as reduced them to beggary; and they never regained their former state of wealth and splendour.

Questions on the History of Ionia.

From whom did Ionia derive its name, and how was it bounded?

What was Phocæa, and where situated? In what were the inhabitants expert, and whether did they sail? Unable to oppose the Persians, for what place did they embark? Why did they return to Phocæa, and what there effect? Did any of them settle again at Phocæa, and what became of the remainder?

What was Smyrna reckoned, and where situated? Who suppose it to have been built by the Æolians? To whom was it distinguished for its attachment? What is Smyrna at present, and what was the character of its inhabitants?

Where anciently stood Clazomenæ, and for what purpose was it founded? Whither, and on what account, did the inhabitants withdraw, and where build a new city? What did the Romans declare the inhabitants, and with what did Augustus embellish this city?

What is recorded of Erythræ? of Teos? of Lebedus? of Colophon? and of Priene?

What was Ephesus in the times of the Romans, and by whom was it founded? What was the chief ornament of Ephesus? Where was the temple of Diana situated, what were exhausted in its structure, and how long was it in building? How was the foundation secured, what were the length and breadth of the temple, and how was it supported? What was the great Diana of the Ephesians? By whom was the temple burnt? Of what was Ephesus long the principal city, and how was it governed? When did the Ephesians declare against the Romans, and what did they commit? How was this crime punished by Sylla?

What did Miletus possess? Who was Thales, and where was he born? What war did Miletus successfully maintain, and when, and by whom, were this city taken and laid in ashes, and its inhabitants carried away? What did the Milesians after their return from their captivity, and by whom were they frequently subjected? What was the conduct of Alexander and of the Romans towards the Milesians?

What were the twelve cities of the Ionic league, and what were its laws?

From whom did Æolis derive its name, and what did it anciently comprehend? How many cities did it contain? For what art were the inhabitants of Pitane famous?

What was Doris, properly so called? Which was the principal city, and for what was it famous? From whom were mausoleums denominated, and what did the ancients consider this structure? Of whom was Halicarnassus the birth-place, and for what was Cnidus famous?

Who were the Ionians, Dorians, and Æolians? From whom were the Ionians descended? What was their religion, and what their form of government? What was their character? By whom were they subdued, and in the expedition against the Greeks whom did they rejoin? By whom were they subjected with the other Greeks, what was their conduct to the Romans, and how and by whom were they punished?

SICILY.

THIS great and fruitful island was anciently known by the names of Sicania, Sicilia, and Trinacria from its triangular form. It is situated between Italy and Africa; and the whole circumference is six hundred miles.

Ætna, now mount Gibello, emits flames, throws up stones and ashes, and alarms the inhabitants by its roaring; and its convulsions have frequently overturned cities, and covered the island with ruins. In the Tuscan Sea, near Sicily, lie the Æolian and Vulcanian isles, in which Vulcan is fabled to have had his forges, and Æolus to have

confined the winds subject to his command. It is, however, probable, that the whistling of the winds through the caverns of the isles, and their volcanic fires, excited the idea of forges and tempests.

The island of Sicily has given birth to a great number of men of learning and genius. *Æschylus*, *Diodorus Siculus*, *Empedocles*, *Gorgias*, *Euclid*, *Archimedes*, *Epicharmus*, and *Theocritus*, were all natives of Sicily.

It is pretended, that the Cyclops and the Lestrigons were giants, descended from Japhet, who landed in Sicily after the confusion of tongues. The Cyclops, being destroyed, were succeeded by the Sicani, who migrated from the banks of the river Sicanus in Spain. The number of the inhabitants was augmented by some Trojans; and the Siculi, or Sicilians, went to this island as exiles from Ausonia, or deserters from Liguria. Sicily was also peopled by Greeks from Chalcis, Achaia, Doris, and from Crete, Rhodes, and other islands; and by some colonies from Italy.

At length, Syracuse, which was founded by a Corinthian, usurped the chief power, and continued for a long time the metropolis of Sicily. It was at first governed by kings; and afterwards a democracy was established. It exhibits a perpetual alternation of slavery under tyrants, and of liberty under a popular government.

(B. C. 483.) Gelon is said to have introduced himself into Syracuse by his address, and to have gained the favour of the people, who invested him with absolute power. He laid the foundation of that immense commerce, which rendered Syracuse strong and opulent. He proposed to assist the Greeks against Xerxes, when the Carthaginians, whom the Persian monarch had subsidized to make a diversion in his favour, landed in Sicily an army of three hundred thousand men under the command of Hamilcar. However, Gelon, by means of an intercepted letter, was enabled to send a body of cavalry, who put Hamilcar to death, dispersed the troops, and burnt the ships, while he attacked the other camp. One sloop only escaped, to convey to Carthage the news of this disaster. The Carthaginians, in the utmost consternation, sent ambassadors to conclude a peace with Gelon on any terms. Gelon, however, only required, that they should pay a sum of money for the expences of the war; erect a temple in which the treaty should be preserved; and abolish human

sacrifices. An assembly of the Syracusans being convened, Gelon, who had hitherto appeared in the modest quality of prætor, was invited to assume the title of king, and invested with supreme authority. The people also passed a decree, settling the crown, after his death, on his two brothers, Hiero and Thrasybulus; and because he had appeared in the assembly without arms, when all the Syracusans came armed, they commanded a statue to be erected, representing him in the habit of an humble citizen.

Gelon employed the short time he reigned, in rendering his people happy. He is one of the few, who have become more virtuous by being raised to a throne. He was particularly celebrated for his honesty, truth, and sincerity; and he is said never to have wronged even the meanest of his subjects, and never to have promised what he did not perform. He encouraged agriculture, and was an enemy to all luxury, pomp, and ostentation. The people, in token of their gratitude and affection, erected, in the place where he was buried, a magnificent mausoleum, and decreed him those honours which were then paid to demi-gods and heroes.

(B. C. 471.) Gelon was succeeded by his elder brother, Hiero, whom some represent as an excellent prince, and others as a covetous, obstinate, and cruel tyrant. It is, however, probable, that this difference may be explained by distinguishing two epochs in the life and reign of Hiero: the first, when full of strength and vigour, he obeyed the impulse of a savage and ferocious disposition; the latter, when attacked by a lingering disease, he shut himself up in his palace, and made reflexions, which produced in him a wonderful change.

(B. C. 459.) Hiero was succeeded by his brother Thrasybulus, a cruel and sanguinary tyrant, who believed himself to be of a different nature from that of his subjects, and massacred all those who gave him the least cause of offence. Incensed at this oppressive conduct, the people took up arms and expelled the tyrant, who retired to Italy. His departure restored liberty to the Syracusans, who established a democracy, which, however, assigned the magistracies to the principal inhabitants. In order to prevent any one from aspiring at the supreme power, they enacted a law similar to that of the Athenian ostracism, which was called *petalism* from the Greek word *petalos*, a leaf. It was

inscribed with the name of the accused person, who, if condemned by a plurality of votes, was banished for five years. This law being greatly abused, was afterwards repealed.

The Syracusans attempting to subdue the neighbouring cities, the latter requested the assistance of the Athenians, who had long wished to form an establishment in Sicily. Nicias, a prudent general, whom the public esteem marked out for that expedition, endeavoured to dissuade the Athenians from such an undertaking; but the senate, as well as the people, were hurried on by enthusiasm, and determined to sell the Syracusans and their allies as slaves, and oblige the other cities of Sicily to pay an annual tribute to Athens.

(B. C. 415.) Accordingly, the Athenians set sail, and arrived before Syracuse, which they besieged both by sea and land. The Syracusans were reduced to such distress as to think of surrendering, when Gylippus, a Spartan general, arrived with assistance from Lacedæmon. Nicias found himself under the necessity of demanding a reinforcement from Athens, which dispatched another fleet, commanded by Demosthenes, a brave and enterprising general. This fleet, on board of which were eight thousand troops, arrived with the air and parade of victory. Demosthenes induced Nicias to make an assault, which was not successful.

The Athenians, who besieged Syracuse, finding themselves blockaded in the harbour, became sensible of the necessity of forcing a retreat, that they might save their fleet. Accordingly, the Athenian and Syracusan armaments met, and an engagement ensued, which continued the whole day, and in which the Athenians were completely defeated. Finding no other resource left than to endeavour to reach some towns in alliance with them, where they might wait till succours should arrive from Athens, or vessels to convey them home, they began their march. However, the dead and the dying retarded their progress; and the sick and the wounded, clasping their comrades or friends in their arms, conjured them with tears not to leave them behind. The enemy briskly pursued and allowed them scarcely a moment of rest. Nicias and Demosthenes were made prisoners, and, after being publicly scourged, were thrown from a precipice (B. C. 413). The soldiers were shut up in the quarries, where

they received a scanty allowance of food, and were infected with the putrid bodies of their dead companions. Such was the issue of this war, after it had continued nearly three years.

Sicily was soon engaged in a new contest. The Egestines, who had invited the Athenians into Sicily, dreading the resentment of the Syracusans, offered to put their city into the hands of the Carthaginians, from whom they requested assistance against the inhabitants of Selinuntum. The Carthaginians committed the management of the war to Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, who landed in Sicily with an army of three hundred thousand men. The Selinuntines defended their walls, their streets, their public squares, and even their houses, but were every where overpowered by numbers. Two thousand six hundred of them escaped to Agrigentum, and the rest were cut to pieces by the Carthaginians, who committed dreadful cruelties and atrocities. The conquerors then marched to Himera, before which Hamilcar had been killed by Gelon, and which shared the same fate as Selinuntum. Hannibal ordered three thousand Himerians to be barbarously massacred on the spot, where his grandfather had been defeated and killed; and after thus terminating the campaign, he embarked his troops, and set sail for Africa.

The Carthaginians, being allured by the hopes of more plunder, returned to Sicily with three hundred thousand men, and attacked Agrigentum, the most opulent city in the island, next to Syracuse. In the first sally, the besieged burnt the machines, and made a prodigious slaughter of the enemy. Hannibal, therefore, commanded all the tombs, and stately monuments around the city, to be demolished, and mounds to be raised with the materials. Soon after, a plague broke out in the army, and carried off a great number of soldiers. At length, Agrigentum being greatly distressed for want of provisions, the inhabitants resolved to leave the city, which was taken possession of by the Carthaginians, who practised dreadful cruelties on the aged, the sick, and the infirm, and obtained immense riches, and a prodigious number of paintings, vases, and statues.

The Agrigentines, who took refuge in Syracuse, filled that city with complaints against the Syracusan commanders, as if they had betrayed Agrigentum into the hands of the enemy. This raised such disturbances in

Syracuse, as afforded to Dionysius, a bold, eloquent, and aspiring man, an opportunity of seizing on the sovereign power, and of depriving the inhabitants of that liberty, which they had long abused, and gradually converted into unbounded licentiousness. After procuring a guard of one thousand men, and being joined by part of the garrison in Gela, he possessed himself of the citadel (B. C. 404), and, bidding defiance to his opposers, publicly declared himself king of Syracuse, in the twenty-fifth year of his age. But on the first defeat he experienced from the Carthaginians, the people, supposing that a secret understanding prevailed between them, revolted and united with his enemies. Dionysius, however, found means not only to appease the revolt, but to conclude a peace with the Carthaginians. A new insurrection was quelled by the arrival of foreign troops, who forced their way to the place where Dionysius was blockaded, and set him at liberty.

To occupy the attention of the people, Dionysius again declared war against the Carthaginians, from whom he took the most important of the towns which they possessed in Sicily, but who, nevertheless, appeared before Syracuse, to which they laid siege. Dionysius having proceeded with a detachment from the fleet, in quest of provisions, the Syracusans gained some advantage during his absence, and refused to admit him on his return, unless he would abdicate the sovereignty. But Pharacidas, who commanded a body of Lacedæmonians sent to the relief of Syracuse, declaring that he had come to assist Dionysius, and not to destroy his authority, the assembly dispersed, and the tyrant was admitted.

The Carthaginians being exhausted by a plague, were obliged to raise the siege, and Dionysius suffered them to retire unmolested, on condition that they paid him a large sum of money. He then turned his arms against Italy, and took Rhegium, the inhabitants of which he treated with his usual inhumanity. Indeed, no act of clemency was ever performed by Dionysius but through interest. Inhumanity seemed to be natural to him. He was so afraid of suffering the people to approach him, that he always harangued them from the top of a tower. No person was admitted into his presence without being searched. Besides locks and bolts, he was protected by a

foss and a draw-bridge; and the least noise in the streets, or in his palace, made him tremble.

Dionysius possessed a passion for poetry. He contended for the prize at Athens, and, when he gained it, shewed more satisfaction, than on account of his greatest victories. On that occasion, he entertained the whole city with extraordinary magnificence, and spent an immense treasure in public feasts and banquets, which continued several days. In the midst of this rejoicing, he was seized with a complaint, which terminated at once his life and his reign.

(B. C. 366.) He was succeeded by his son Dionysius, who was surnamed the Younger, and who was a weak and irresolute prince. Peaceable and calm in his disposition, he was naturally inclined to virtue, and averse from violence and cruelty; but his father had stifled in him every noble and elevated sentiment by a mean and an obscure education. Dionysius had no sooner escaped from the restraint imposed upon him by a gloomy father, than he abandoned himself to all kinds of licentiousness and dissolute pleasures. Dion, the brother of Aristomache, the wife of Dionysius the Elder, a friend and disciple of Plato, induced the young prince to banish the accomplices of his debaucheries, and to recall Plato. The philosopher, however, had soon reason to repent of his compliance. Through a cabal of courtiers, Dion and Plato were disgraced, and obliged to retire to Athens.

Dionysius not only refused to Dion the revenue arising from his property, but compelled his wife Arete, who was much beloved by her husband, to espouse Timocrates, one of his courtiers. These provocations incensed Dion, who collected a small band, composed of brave and resolute men, and arriving at Syracuse whilst Dionysius was engaged with the war in Italy, declared that he came not to avenge his own private wrongs, but to emancipate Syracuse and Sicily from the yoke of the tyrant. Under this standard of liberty, Dion obtained possession of the greater part of the city; and having defeated Dionysius in an engagement, compelled the tyrant to flee into Italy. The citadel, however, still held out, but at length was obliged to capitulate.

Dion having delivered up the citadel to the Syracusans, dismissed his troops, and began to think of forming a government for his fellow-citizens. According to his

plan, the supreme authority was to be vested in a council, the members of which were to be chosen by the people and the nobility. This project, however, being impeded by Heraclides, one of his generals, Dion permitted him to be murdered. For this homicide he was himself punished by a violent death, being assassinated in his own house, by his guest and friend Calippus, who aspired to the sovereignty, but who was soon after expelled Syracuse.

(B. C. 350.) The death of Dion, and the flight of Calippus, recalled Dionysius, who reinstated himself in the possession of his dominions, ten years after he had been obliged to quit the throne. The Syracusans endeavoured to procure the assistance of Ictas, the tyrant of Leontini; but they discovered, that he abused their confidence, and had concluded a secret treaty with the Carthaginians, who engaged to render him absolute master of Syracuse, and whose conquests in Sicily he promised not to oppose. Alarmed at this treachery, the Syracusans had recourse to the Corinthians, from whom they were descended, and by whom their deputies were well received.

In the neighbourhood of Corinth resided a man named Timoleon, whose ardent zeal for liberty had induced him to cause his brother, who was aiming at the sovereignty, to be put to death, though he loved him with the greatest affection. The principal citizens admired and applauded this action; but others considered him as an abominable fratricide, who would not fail of bringing down the vengeance of the gods upon himself and his country. His mother uttered against him the most dreadful curses and imprecations, and refused to see the murderer of her son. The despair of his mother filling him with horror, he renounced public affairs, withdrew from the city, and for twenty years inhabited the most desert places, always a prey to the deepest melancholy. After that time, he returned to Corinth, where he lived as a plain individual, without interfering in the government. A plan being in agitation to deliver Syracuse and other cities of Sicily from tyrants, the Corinthians appointed him chief of the enterprise.

Ictas was master of the city of Syracuse; the Carthaginian admiral, of the ports; and Dionysius, of the citadel. The last being reduced to the utmost extremity (B. C. 348),

Timoleon suffered him to carry away part of his treasure, and caused him to be escorted to Corinth, where he ruined himself with perfumers, comedians, and singers, and, in order to procure a subsistence, was obliged to keep a school. Timoleon left in the citadel the four hundred Corinthians, under an able commander named Leon. He afterwards returned with a powerful reinforcement, defeated the Carthaginians, and obtained possession of Syracuse.

Timoleon was no sooner master of Syracuse, than he caused a proclamation to be made by sound of trumpet, inviting all the citizens to assemble, and demolish the citadel and the other fortresses, which he called the *nests of tyrants*.* On the site where they had stood, he caused to be erected public edifices, destined for the administration of public justice. He then employed himself in repeopling the city, and in forming new laws, the basis of which was the democratic government, under the presidency of an annual magistrate. Timoleon over-ran Sicily as a conqueror; subdued the tyrants of several cities, whom he sent to Corinth to be the companions of Dionysius; and defeated the Carthaginians, who again appeared in the island. As a mark of gratitude for his services, the Syracusans gave him the most beautiful house in the city, and a magnificent country-seat, to which he retired with his wife and family. In affairs of importance they followed his advice; and at his death, they honoured his memory with tears and benedictions. It was also enacted by a special decree, that the day of his death should be kept in remembrance by a solemn annual festival.

For a space of twenty years, the Syracusans enjoyed the fruits of Timoleon's services. About that time, Syracuse groaned under the tyranny of Agathocles, who exceeded all his predecessors in cruelty and other vices. He was the son of a potter. He possessed most extraordinary beauty, with the most elegant figure, and acquired prodigious strength, to which his bravery was not inferior. He gained the friendship and esteem of a rich Syracusan, named Demas, whose wife he afterwards married, and by that means became the most wealthy citizen in Syracuse. He was soon afterwards expelled from that city by Sosistratus, who had usurped the supreme power. He then re-

* The word *tyrants* is frequently applied in ancient history to those who assumed the supremacy in places, which had been once under a popular form of government.

tired into Italy, and, during his abode in that country, Sosistratus was obliged to abdicate the sovereignty, and quit Syracuse. Sosistratus and the other exiles had recourse to the Carthaginians, who readily espoused their cause. Upon this, the Syracusans recalled Agathocles, whom they appointed commander in chief, and who defeated the combined armies of Sosistratus and the Carthaginians, and received seven wounds in the combat. Agathocles, therefore, began to exercise a sovereign power over his fellow-citizens, and took such measures as plainly shewed that he aimed at monarchy. On discovering his design, the people transferred the command of their forces to a Corinthian; and Agathocles saved his life only by a stratagem.

Agathocles re-appeared under the walls of Syracuse, at the head of a strong army, which he had collected in the heart of Sicily; and a negotiation being entered into, he was received into the city, on condition of making no attempt against the democracy, and of taking a solemn oath to maintain the interests of the people. But soon after, under pretence of a war with Erbita, a neighbouring city, he collected a great number of soldiers, whom he induced to pillage Syracuse, and to massacre the whole body of the nobility. In a few hours, more than four thousand persons fell a sacrifice; and the streets were covered with dead bodies. He ordered the pillage and massacre to be continued two days longer, after which he was proclaimed king by the few survivors.

His first law was the abolition of debts, and an equal division of the lands between the poor and the rich; and, by this means, he gained the affections of the common people, who were now on a level with the nobles. After effecting his purpose, he became more just and humane, enacted wise laws, and maintained himself on the throne by the conquest of all Sicily, except the cities which belonged to the Carthaginians.

The success of Agathocles gave uneasiness to the Carthaginians, who sent against him an army under the command of Hamilcar. This general gained over him a complete victory, which obliged Agathocles to confine himself within Syracuse (B. C. 279). Whilst the Carthaginians besieged that city, Agathocles embarked some of his best troops, and, landing in Africa, burned the vessels which had conveyed his army. An engagement took place *between* the Syracusans and the Carthaginians, the latter

of whom were defeated with the loss of Hanno, their general.

In the mean time, Syracuse was reduced to great extremity; but Agathocles having sent to the inhabitants of that city the head of Hanno, the sight of it encouraged them to support with success a last assault. They afterwards attacked and entirely routed the Carthaginian army, took Hamilcar prisoner, and sent his head to Agathocles. This spectacle struck the Carthaginians in Africa with great terror. As the war was prolonged, Agathocles resolved to return to Sicily; and having given the necessary orders during his absence, embarked with him two thousand chosen men, and arrived at Syracuse. After restoring order to the government, and destroying a league which had been formed against him, he set out once more for Africa. But finding his affairs desperate in that country, he determined to abandon his troops, and, making his escape, put to sea. In the first transports of their fury, the soldiers massacred two of his sons whom he had left behind, and, having elected chiefs for themselves, concluded with the Carthaginians a peace, by which they were to be transported to Sicily, and put in possession of the city of Selinuntum.

Agathocles having returned to Sicily, attacked the Egestines, who had revolted, took their city by assault, and put the inhabitants to the sword. After receiving an account of the tragical fate of his children in Africa, he ordered his brother Antandras, governor of Syracuse, to put to death all the relations of the Syracusans who had accompanied him in that expedition, from the great grandfather to the child at the breast. The slaughter was dreadful; the streets were inundated with blood; and the waters of the sea close to the wall tinged with a red colour. This monster of cruelty was wont after his meals to clean his teeth with a quill, which one Mœnon, who he had punished unmercifully, having dipped in poison, his teeth and gums putrified (B. C. 289), and his whole body was tortured with the most racking pains. While alive, he was burnt on the funeral pile, in the twenty-eighth year of his reign.

On the death of Agathocles, the government was assumed by Mœnon, who was expelled by Hycetas. The latter took the modest title of prætor, but was deprived of the sovereign power by Tœnion, who was opposed by Sosistratus. But being attacked by the Carthaginians, these

chiefs united, and called in to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who was then carrying on war against the Romans. By his insinuating conduct and great affability, Pyrrhus won the hearts of the Syracusans; and by his vigorous measures, he re-conquered those cities which had thrown off the yoke. But being determined to attack the Carthaginians in their own country, the Syracusans became much dissatisfied, and Pyrrhus thought himself happy to quit Sicily on the invitation of the Italians, who now recalled him.

(B. C. 275.) On the departure of Pyrrhus, Hiero was appointed to command the Syracusan forces against the Carthaginians, who had regained most of the places which they possessed before the arrival of the Epirots. Hiero was the son of Hierocles, one of the descendants of Gelon, but his mother was a slave. He had distinguished himself by his courage, prudence, and military exploits; but his great moderation, affability, and engaging behaviour, gained him more honour than his military achievements. Though the citizens were displeased that the soldiers should arrogate to themselves the right of electing a chief, yet they confirmed their choice, and invested Hiero with the whole civil and military power. This power he always exercised with the greatest moderation. He concluded with the Romans a treaty, the conditions of which were so faithfully performed on both sides, that it continued as long as Hiero lived. The defeats, which the Romans sustained at the lake of Thrasymene, and at Cannæ (B. C. 216), could not shake his constancy. By the prudence of Hiero all discord was suppressed; and the soldiers and citizens considered him as their protector and father, rather than their sovereign. He wrote on agriculture, and died at the age of ninety, deeply regreted by his subjects, as well as by foreigners.

(B. C. 211.) Hiero intended to abolish royalty, but was dissuaded from his purpose by Demarata his eldest daughter, who was the wife of Andranodorus, a Sicilian nobleman. He, therefore, appointed his grand-son, Hieronymus, king, with a council of fifteen persons, called tutors, to whom he recommended never to abandon the alliance with the Romans. The young prince having no other check than the presence of men interested in flattering his passions, abandoned himself to debauchery, and soon became an object of contempt as well as detestation. Being informed of Hannibal's victories, he not only refused

to ratify the treaty with the Romans, but accompanied his refusal with bitter raillery on the subject of their defeats. His vices and cruelties were such, that a conspiracy was formed against him. He was assassinated, while passing through a narrow street; and the people shewed so little concern for his person, that they suffered the body to rot in the place where it had fallen.

(B. C. 208.) Hieronymus was no sooner dead, than two of the conspirators hastened to prevent the attempts of Andranodorus, and of others of the king's faction. Though Andranodorus had already seized on the citadel and the island of Ortygia, and filled them with troops, yet he thought proper to give way to the circumstances of the moment, and dismissing the soldiers, delivered up to the senate the treasures of his nephew. However, he soon after, in concert with Themistus, the husband of Harmonia, sister of the deceased king, formed a plot to exterminate the chief citizens of Syracuse. This being disclosed to the senate, Andranodorus and Themistus were condemned, though absent, and put to death as they were entering the senate-house. This murder occasioned great noise; and the people having tumultuously assembled, sentence of death was voted against the guardians and tutors of the late king, and against all of the royal family. This cruel sentence was no sooner passed by the people, than the prætors, who ought to have checked the fury of the multitude, ordered it to be put in execution.

The Carthaginians now obtained an ascendancy in Syracuse. Two of the generals, Hippocrates and Epicydes, had the address to cause the number of the prætors to be reduced to two, and to make the choice fall on themselves. They then opened the prisons, and emancipated the slaves, whom they converted into soldiers. Soon after, Marcellus, the Roman consul (B. C. 202), appeared at the gates of Syracuse, and demanded that the authors of the late massacre should be delivered into his hand; but finding his demand treated with ridicule, he commenced hostilities, and attempted a general assault on the city. However, by the genius of Archimedes, an able mathematician, without employing the sword, two Roman armies were repulsed on this occasion. Archimedes constructed machines, which discharged stones weighing more than half a ton, and did execution at a great distance, and which dispersed through

the air a multitude of large arrows and heavy pikes, and caused them to hit the object at which they were directed.

Marcellus, therefore, was obliged to convert the siege into a blockade; and, at length, he obtained possession of the city by an escalade. The soldiers entered the houses of the Syracusans, seized gold, silver, furniture, and provisions, and whatever suited them, but offered no violence to the persons of the inhabitants. Acradina, the strongest quarter of the city, held out some time longer (B. C. 200), but was at length taken by means of an officer, who gave up to Marcellus one of the gates. Archimedes being employed in the demonstration of a mathematical problem, did not hear the noise occasioned by the assault; and when a soldier appeared and presented a sword to his breast, he said, "Wait a moment, my friend, and my problem will be solved." The Roman, astonished at his tranquillity, was desirous of carrying him to the consul; but Archimedes taking with him a box full of mathematical instruments, the soldier imagined that it contained gold, and instantly killed him. Marcellus was exceedingly grieved at the accident, and ordered a tomb to be erected to his memory.

After the capture of Syracuse, Agrigentum was besieged and taken. By order of the consul Lævinus, the chiefs of the last city were scourged and beheaded, and the people reduced to slavery, and sold by auction (B. C. 198). After this terrible example, no more cities resisted, and Sicily was converted into a province of Rome.

Questions on the History of Sicily.

What were the ancient names of Sicily, where is it situated, and what is its circumference?

What effects are produced by mount *Ætna*? What islands are situated near Sicily, in the Tuscan Sea? How is it probable, that the fables respecting *Vulcan* and *Æolus* originated? To what learned men did Sicily give birth?

Who, is it pretended, landed in Sicily after the confusion of tongues, and by whom were they succeeded? How was the number of the inhabitants augmented, and whence and in what manner did the *Siculi* enter the island? By what others was Sicily peopled?

Which city usurped the chief power, and how was it governed?

How did *Gelon* obtain absolute power, and of what did he lay the foundation? Against whom did he propose to assist the Greeks, and what was the result of the Carthaginian expedition against Sicily? On what terms did *Gelon* require that peace should be concluded with the

Carthaginians? By whom was he invited to assume the title of king, on whom was the crown settled after his death, and what was the statue which the people erected to his memory?

What was the character of Gelon's reign, and for what was he particularly celebrated? To what was he an enemy, and what did the people erect in the place where he was buried?

By whom was Gelon succeeded? What was the character of Hiero, and how is the difference to be explained?

By whom was Hiero succeeded, and what was his character? Why was Thrasybulus expelled, and what form of government did the Syracusans establish? What was the nature of the law of patrum, and why was it repealed?

Why did the other cities of Sicily request the assistance of the Athenians against the Syracusans, and what did the Athenians determine?

How was Syracuse besieged, and to what reduced? Did the Athenians send other reinforcements, and was the assault of Nicias successful?

What was the result of the engagement between the Athenian and Syracusan armaments? Whither did the Athenians attempt to march? What was the fate of Nicias and Demosthenes, and the issue of the war?

In what war was Sicily next engaged? To whom did the Carthaginians commit the management of the war? What were the defence and fate of the inhabitants of Selinuntum? What was also the fate of those of Himera, and whither did Hannibal set sail?

What city did the Carthaginians next attack, and what was the success of the besieged? What means did Hannibal adopt to reduce Agrigentum, and by what disease was the army attacked? What cruelties were practised, and what valuables obtained by the Carthaginians, when they took possession of Agrigentum?

Of what did the Agrigentines in Syracuse accuse the Syracusan commanders, and what opportunity did this afford to Dionysius? How, and when, did he declare himself king of Syracuse? Did the people revolt, and how was the insurrection quelled?

Why did Dionysius again declare war against the Carthaginians, and how was it conducted? Did the people endeavour to wrest from him the sovereignty, and how were they prevented?

On what condition did Dionysius suffer the Carthaginians to retire unmolested, and against what country did he turn his arms? How were the inhabitants of Rhegium treated, did Dionysius ever perform any act of clemency, and what was natural to him? Whence did he harangue the people, and how protect himself?

What passion did Dionysius possess, on what occasion did he entertain the whole city, and what was the nature of his death?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was his character? To what did Dionysius the Younger abandon himself, by whom was he induced to recall Plato, and how were Dion and Plato disgraced?

What provocations incensed Dion, and whither did he oblige Dionysius to flee?

What plan of government did Dion project, and how came Dion to lose his life? By what was the flight of Calippus occasioned?

How was Dionysius recalled, and after what time did he reinstate himself on the throne? To whom did the Syracusans apply for assistance, and how were they deceived? To whom did they next apply?

What was the character of Timoleon of Corinth; of what act was he guilty; and how was he regarded by the citizens? What was the con-

duct of his mother, and whither did Timoleon withdraw? On his return to Corinth in what manner did he live, and of what enterprise did the Corinthians appoint him chief?

In whose possession was Syracuse, and whither did Timoleon cause Dionysius to be escorted? What was the conduct of Dionysius, and to what was he obliged to resort for a subsistence? How did Timoleon obtain possession of Syracuse?

What proclamation did Timoleon cause to be made, and what public works did he undertake? To whom is the word *tyrant* frequently applied in ancient history? What was the nature of the government? What achievements did Timoleon perform? What return did the Syracusans make for his services, how was his memory honoured, and the day of his death observed?

How long did the Syracusans reap the fruits of Timoleon's services? What was the character of Agathocles, and how did he become the most wealthy citizen in Syracuse? By whom was he expelled, and whither did he retire? Why was Agathocles recalled, and what was his success? At what did Agathocles now aim, and how did he save his life?

On what condition was Agathocles received into the city, of what cruelties was he guilty, and when was he proclaimed king?

What was the first law that he enacted? After obtaining the sovereignty, what were his conduct and his achievements?

By whom was Agathocles defeated? For what country did he embark some of his best troops, and what was his success against the Carthaginians in Africa?

By what were the inhabitants of Syracuse encouraged to support with success a last assault? What was the issue of their attack on the Carthaginians? What sight struck the Carthaginians in Africa with great terror? On returning to Sicily, what did Agathocles accomplish? Why did he abandon his troops in Africa, and what was their conduct?

How did Agathocles punish the Egestines? How did he retaliate on the Syracusans for the tragical fate of his children in Africa? How was he punished by Mœnon, and what was the nature of his death?

By whom was the government now assumed, and by whom was Mœnon expelled? Whom did Tœnion and Sosistratus call in to their assistance against the Carthaginians, and what did Pyrrhus effect? Why did Pyrrhus quit Sicily?

On the departure of Pyrrhus, who was appointed to command the Syracusan forces? Who was Hiero, and what was his character? Did the citizens confirm the choice of the soldiers, and invest Hiero with the whole civil and military power? How did he exercise this power, and how long did his treaty with the Romans continue? Did the defeats of the Romans shake his constancy? Did Hiero suppress all discord, and how was he considered by the soldiers and citizens? On what subject did he write, and at what age die?

Whom did Hiero appoint king, and what did he recommend to Hieronymus? What was the conduct of the young prince, and how did he treat the Romans? What was the fate of Hieronymus?

On what did Andranodorus seize, and why did he deliver up to the senate the treasures of his nephew? What plot did Andranodorus form, and how were he and Themistus put to death? Against whom was sentence of death voted by the people, and by whom ordered to be put in execution?

Who now obtained an ascendancy in Syracuse, and what was the conduct of Hippocrates and Epicydes? What did Marcellus, the Roman

consul, demand, and by what means were two Roman armies repulsed? What kind of machines did Archimedes construct?

How did Marcellus obtain possession of the city, what did the soldiers seize, and how was Acradina taken? What said Archimedes to the soldier who presented a sword to his breast, and how happened Archimedes to be killed? What did Marcellus order to be erected to his memory?

After the capture of Syracuse, what befel Agrigentum, and how were the chiefs and the people treated? When was Sicily converted into a province of Rome?

RHODES.

THIS island derived its name from the Greek word *rhodon*, a rose, and is situated in the Mediterranean sea opposite to the east coast of Lycia and Caria, from which it is distant about twenty miles. It anciently produced, in great abundance, all sorts of delicious fruits, and wines of so exquisite a taste, that they were used by the Romans chiefly in their sacrifices. The city of Rhodes had a commodious harbour, defended by rocks which were fifty feet distant from each other, and which served as a base to the famous colossus. This colossus was a statue of copper, erected in honour of Apollo or the sun, the tutelary deity of the island, and was one hundred and five feet in height, so that ships, in entering the harbour, sailed between its legs. Chares, the artist, was employed twelve years in completing the work. After it had stood sixty years, it was thrown down by an earthquake, and lay eight hundred and ninety-four years in the place where it had fallen. Moawiyah, the sixth caliph of the Saracens, sold it to a Jew, who loaded with it nine hundred camels; so that the weight of the colossus, estimated at the rate which each camel could carry, must have amounted to seven hundred and twenty thousand pounds.

The Rhodians applied themselves very early to trade and navigation, and became so skilled in maritime affairs, that for many ages they were sovereigns of the sea. Their laws, known by the name of the Rhodian laws, became the code by which all controversies respecting maritime affairs were decided.

The government of Rhodes was originally monarchical, and several kings reigned in this island before the Trojan war. To royalty succeeded the republican form of government. Having been subdued by the king of Caria,

the Rhodians avenged themselves on his widow, Artemisia, and ravaged her kingdom. Artemisia, learning that they meant to attack Halicarnassus, exhorted the inhabitants to post themselves on the walls, and when the enemy appeared, to express by acclamations and the clapping of hands, that they wished to surrender. The Rhodians, not suspecting any treachery, left their fleet unguarded, and entered the city. In the mean time, Artemisia came with her gallees, and seizing the enemies fleet without resistance, set sail for Rhodes. The inhabitants, seeing their own vessels approach, adorned with wreaths of laurels, entertained no doubt that Halicarnassus was taken, and admitted into their ports the Carians (B. C. 351), who made themselves masters of the city. Artemisia punished with death at Halicarnassus the stupid confidence of those, who had suffered themselves to be deceived. She also caused a trophy of her victory to be erected in the island, together with two statues of bronze, one of which represented the city of Rhodes, and the other Artemisia branding it with a hot iron.

Rhodes afterwards regained its freedom by the aid of the Athenians. One of the most celebrated events in regard to ancient Rhodes (B. C. 304), is the siege which it sustained against Demetrius, the son of Antigonus. Many encouragements, both of interest and of glory, inspired all orders in the city with the most invincible ardour. The rich defrayed the expences of the siege, and supplied the artificers and engineers with timber for the machines, and with metals proper for making arms. The Rhodians opposed to Demetrius no less skill and industry than he himself possessed. At the end of a year, this prince thought himself happy in finding a pretence for raising the siege without dishonour. He made a present of his machines to the Rhodians, who sold them for as much as purchased the copper, employed in forming the colossus.

The Rhodians concluded a treaty with the Romans, to whom they rendered eminent services in several naval battles, but who did not reward them according to their expectations. They, therefore, shewed an attachment to Perses, king of Macedon, with whom the Romans were at war. This conduct excited the indignation of the Roman senate, and many of the members were of opinion, that war ought to be declared against the Rhodians. However, through the interference of Cato, the senate only re-

quired, that those who had shewn themselves partisans of Perses might be banished. This being done, the Rhodians were declared allies of the Romans.

The Romans assembled in Rhodes, when expelled from Asia by Mithridates, king of Pontus. This prince, therefore, laid siege to it (B. C. 88), but met with an obstinate resistance from the inhabitants, as well as from the refugees. After it had suffered much from the different Roman factions, Vespasian imposed a tribute on Rhodes, which, from being a sovereign, became only the capital of a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Rhodes.

From what did Rhodes derive its name, and how is it situated? What did it anciently produce, and what was the nature of its harbour? What was the colossus, and by whom was it made? By what was it thrown down, what number of camels were employed to carry it away, and what was its weight?

Were the Rhodians skilled in maritime affairs, and what was the nature of their laws?

What was the form of government? By whom were the Rhodians subdued, and on whom did they avenge themselves? By what stratagem did Artemisia, widow of the king of Caria, obtain possession of Rhodes? Whom did she punish for their stupid confidence, and what was the trophy which she caused to be erected in the island?

By whose aid did Rhodes regain its freedom? Which was one of the most celebrated events in regard to ancient Rhodes? Describe the siege. When Demetrius raised the siege of Rhodes, of what did he make a present to the Rhodians?

Did the Rhodians conclude a treaty with the Romans, and how did they observe it? What did the Roman senate require, and were the Rhodians received again into favour?

Why did Mithridates, king of Pontus, besiege Rhodes, and what resistance did he experience? By whom was a tribute imposed on Rhodes, and what did this island become?

CRETE.

CRETE, now called Candia from the name of its capital, is one of the largest islands in the Mediterranean, and much longer than it is broad. It is situated between the Archipelago to the north, the African sea to the south, the Carpathian to the east, and the Ionian to the west. It was formerly adorned with one hundred cities, the vestiges of which still exhibit remarkable curiosities.

Upon mount Ida lived the Dactyli, who taught the use of fire; the method of fusing copper and iron, and of working these metals; together with poetry, music, and sacred ceremonies. Next to the Dactyli, were the Curetes, who dwelt upon the mountains, under the shade of trees, and in caves, the art of building houses being then unknown. They united men in society, and taught them to manage flocks, to break horses, to hunt, &c. The Titans were contemporary with the Curetes, and, on account of their inventions, were placed by the Cretans among the gods.

The monarchical form of government was succeeded by the republican. The sovereign power was vested in a senate of thirty members, whose decisions did not acquire the force of laws till confirmed by the suffrages of the people. Next in authority to the senate were the *cosmi*, who were chosen from the body of the people, and from them were appointed the senators, who were not responsible for any thing while *cosmi*, but who became responsible as soon as they took their seats in the senate. Between these magistracies a proper balance was preserved. The Romans (B. C. 68.) sought a specious pretext for attacking and subjugating Crete, which had always been perfectly independent. They changed the government of the island, subjected it to tribute, and converted it into a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Crete.

What is the size of Crete, and where situated? How was it formerly adorned? Where lived the Dactyli, and what did they teach? Where the Curetes, and what did they perform? Where were the Titans placed?

By what was the monarchical form of government succeeded? In whom was the sovereign power vested? Who were next in authority to the senate? What did the Romans seek, and what effect?

CYPRUS.

CYPRUS extends from east to west along the coast of Cilicia. This island, where Venus, formed of the foam of the sea, landed on a marine shell, accompanied by Love and the Graces, was also favoured by Bacchus. The honey, wine, oil, wool, and copper of Cyprus, are

much commended by the ancients. This island is supposed to have been first discovered by the Phœnicians, who established in it a colony by whom it was peopled.

Without doubt, the government of Cyprus was monarchical. The island was divided among several petty sovereigns, each of whom reigned with an uncontrolled authority till the time of Cyrus the Great. This prince subdued them by his generals, but left them in possession of their respective kingdoms, obliging them only to pay an annual tribute to him and his successors, and to send supplies of men, money, and ships, when required. The Cyprian princes quietly submitted to the Persians till the reign of Darius the son of Hystaspes (B. C. 500), when, being encouraged by Onesilus, king of Salamis, they attempted, without success, to shake off the yoke. Under the successors of Alexander, Cyprus passed from Antigonus to the kings of Egypt. Alexander, one of the kings of Egypt, being stripped of his territories, made the Romans his heirs when he died (B. C. 311). They, however, permitted the Ptolemies to retain possession of the island till an occasion offered, when a decree was passed for seizing Cyprus (B. C. 58), though the king on the throne had been declared a friend and an ally of Rome, and had done nothing to incur the displeasure of that haughty, rapacious, and imperious republic.

Questions on the History of Cyprus.

Whither does Cyprus extend, and how was it favoured? Which of its productions are much commended? By whom is this island supposed to have been discovered?

What was the form of government, and how was the island divided? What did Cyrus the Great impose on the petty sovereigns, and till what time did the Cyprian princes quietly submit to the Persians? To whom did Cyprus pass under the successors of Alexander, and what was the conduct of the Romans to this island?

SAMOS.

SAMOS is situated between the continent of Asia and the island of Icaria, and is about thirty leagues in circumference. Near Samos, the capital, stood a superb temple dedicated to Juno, the tutelar deity of the island; an

aqueduct which crossed a mountain, and conveyed water to the city; and a mole of one hundred and twenty feet in height, which extended two furlongs into the sea.

The island of Samos was first peopled by Carians, and afterwards by colonies from Ithaca and Cephalaria. Samos, the metropolis, held a considerable rank among the twelve cities of the Ionian confederacy. The form of government was at first monarchical, afterwards republican under a democratic state, oligarchical, and without doubt often anarchical, since it was exposed to domestic troubles. The nobles, who were denominated *geomoræ*, deprived the people of their lands, which they divided among themselves. Afterwards the *geomoræ* were put to the sword, and democracy was re-established, by nine generals, whom the nobles had appointed to command the troops. This form of government gave place to tyranny, which was established by one Syloson. The people, however, resumed their authority, but were again obliged to submit to Polycrates (B. C. 531), the famous tyrant of Samos, who encouraged at his court the poet Anacreon.

Polycrates was succeeded in his tyranny by Mæandrus, his secretary and minister, who was expelled by Soloson, the brother of Polycrates. Various successors held the reins of government, under the protection of the Persians, and in alliance with the Athenians or the Lacedæmonians. This degenerate state was rendered still worse under the kings of Macedonia, Syria, and Pergamus. On the death of Eumenes, the last king of Pergamus, the Samians became subject to Rome. In the reign of Vespasian, Samos, with the other Greek islands, was reduced to a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Samos.

Where is Samos situated, and what is its circumference? What was there near to Samos?

By whom was the island Samos peopled, and what rank did the metropolis hold in the Ionian confederacy? What was the form of government, who deprived the people of their lands, and how was democracy re-established? By whom was tyranny established, and what were the subsequent changes?

By whom was Polycrates succeeded, and who successively held the reins of government? When did the Samians become subject to Rome, and when was Samos reduced to a Roman province?

THE CYCLADES.

THE islands called the Cyclades, were so denominated from a Greek word which signifies a circle*, because they were arranged in that form around Delos, the island of Apollo. Some authors reckon twelve of them, others more.

Questions on the History of the Cyclades.

From what were the Cyclades denominated? What was their number?

THE SPORADES.

THE islands called the Sporades, obtained their appellation from a Greek word signifying to sow†, because of their scattered form about the Cyclades. They lie chiefly on the coast of Asia, to which part of the globe they belong.

Questions on the History of the Sporades.

From what were the Sporades denominated? Where are they situated?

MACEDONIA.

MACEDONIA was anciently bounded on the east by the Ægean Sea, on the south by Thessaly and Epirus, on the west by the Adriatic or the Ionian Sea, and on the north by the river Strymon and the Scardian mountains, and afterwards by the river Nessus or Nestus. It was formed into a kingdom by the aggregation of a great number of small tribes. The air is sharp and salubrious; and the people attain to a great age. The plains bordering on the sea, produce corn and oil, and are more fertile than the rest of the country, which is steep and hilly.

The Macedonians professed the same religion as the Greeks. The form of government was monarchical. The kings often performed the sacerdotal functions, erected

* From κύκλος, a circle or orb.

† From σπείρω, to sow or scatter.

statues and altars, and immolated victims. Though the laws emanated from the prince, yet it was necessary that they should be agreeable to the principles of natural justice, before they could be carried into execution. The Macedonians being naturally brave, discipline rendered them invincible. War became the business of the nation; and the only education which the people received was in the camp. The infantry consisted of three kinds of soldiers; the light-armed, the peltastæ, who were better armed, and the heavy-armed. The last formed the celebrated phalanx*, which was terrible in attack, unshaken in resistance, and as formidable by the regularity and quickness of its movements, when it advanced, as by its firmness when it assumed a position of defence.

(B. C. 795) Caranus, an Argive, carried a colony from Argos into Macedonia, and made himself master of one of its cities, and afterwards of the whole kingdom. The princes Cœnus and Thurimas, his immediate successors, had more occasion to use their prudence than their valour. Perdiccas I. was a person of great abilities and an enterprising spirit. He extended his dominions so far, and his fame so much eclipsed that of his predecessors (B. C. 691), that some have reckoned him the founder of the Macedonian monarchy. It is not, however, till we arrive at the reign of Alexander the First (B. C. 481), who took an important and honourable part in the invasion of Greece by Xerxes, that we properly attain historical ground.

Perdiccas II., the son of Alexander, though possessed of the abilities, did not inherit the integrity of his father. On the death of Perdiccas, his son, Archelaus I. succeeded to the throne. He was a prince of great ability and indefatigable diligence; and the liberal and enlightened policy which he adopted, was much more beneficial to his kingdom than the courage of Alexander, or the craft of Perdiccas. He raised and disciplined a very considerable army, and performed more than all his predecessors in aggrandizing and strengthening the Macedonian monarchy. He was also distinguished for his patronage of learning and learned men; and his palace was adorned with the works of the Grecian painters.

After the death of Archelaus, the throne was filled suc-

* On the form and order of the Macedonian phalanx, see *Robinson's Grecian Antiquities*, p. 354.

cessively by ten princes or usurpers, whose history is filled principally with crimes and calamities. Amyntas secured the crown in his family, and transmitted it to his son Alexander. The reign of this last prince was of short duration. He left two brothers, Perdiccas and Philip, the elder of whom was a minor. Pausanias claimed the kingdom, and was on the point of obtaining it, when Eurydice, the mother of the princes, found assistance in the affection of Iphicrates, an Athenian general, who, moved by her tears and entreaties, espoused her cause, and deposed Pausanias. Soon after, Ptolemy Alorites pretended to the throne, but was deposed by the Thebans under the command of Pelopidas, who reinstated Perdiccas in the kingdom. To secure the independence of the Macedonians on Thebes, thirty youths were carried as hostages to that city, in the number of whom was Philip, the brother of Perdiccas. Pelopidas placed the young prince with his friend Epaminondas, who had at his house a Pythagorean philosopher of great reputation. This philosopher instructed Philip in all those sciences which adorn the mind, and Epaminondas taught him the art of war. Whilst under the protection of this eminent Theban, the young prince had before his eyes examples of the most indefatigable activity, unshaken firmness of soul, love of justice, disinterestedness, and candour. He is, however, accused of having retained such only of these virtues, as were suitable to his designs.

(B. C. 360.) When Philip was informed of the death of his brother Perdiccas, he went secretly from Thebes to Macedon, where he found the people dejected, and the state in the greatest confusion, four formidable armies on the point of attacking the kingdom, a child on the throne, and two powerful competitors contriving to dispossess him. Philip, however, who was then only twenty-two years of age, undismayed by the evils which threatened the kingdom and the throne, boldly asserted the right of his infant nephew. He terminated the domestic troubles; gained over the people by his affability or promises; and caused the pretender to the throne to disappear. After such great success, the nation suffered him to assume, without opposition, the place of his nephew; and, in a few years, Philip became the most powerful and the most envied of monarchs. The reign of this monarch is the most interesting, in the page of history, to those who surveying

not the vulgar revolutions occasioned by force, are delighted with viewing the active energies of a great and comprehensive mind.

(B. C. 358.) Philip always concealed his ambitious projects with great art. When he attacked Amphipolis, a city which lay convenient for his purposes, he assured the Athenians, that it was in order to terminate the dissensions of the inhabitants. When he took Potidæa and Pydna, two cities of great strength, he pretended, that it was only to deliver them from the Athenians who garrisoned them, and to restore them to the Olynthians, whose friendship he was desirous of cultivating. (B. C. 357.) He took possession of the whole country between the rivers Nessus and Strymon, not, as he said, to make himself master of the gold and silver mines which they contained, but to assist the inhabitants against those restless neighbours by whom they were threatened. He cared little whether his stratagems were discovered after the event, provided they were not disconcerted in the course of the enterprise.

Whilst Philip was returning out of Thrace, a messenger arrived with the news that Parmenio had defeated the Illyrians; soon after came another, informing him that his chariot had gained the prize at the Olympic games; and almost at the same time arrived a third, acquainting him that his wife Olympias had brought forth a son at Pella (B. C. 356). This son was the celebrated Alexander the Great. Philip, terrified at so signal a happiness, exclaimed, "Great Jupiter, in return for so many blessings, send me a slight misfortune!"

Philip had now greatly extended and amply secured the ancient boundaries of his kingdom; but he had much more augmented his revenues. He was already grasping at the sovereignty of all Greece; but he was sensible that by attempting too early or too eagerly to obtain this glorious prize, he might for ever destroy his prospect of success. His greatest opponent was Demosthenes, who penetrated his thoughts and designs, and who pointed out to the Athenians the motives and the object of his actions. Philip bribed other orators, who opposed him; but he acknowledged the superiority of Demosthenes. "If he would enter," said he, "into my service, I would confer on him great appointments." To characterize the invincible elo-

quence of this orator, he said: "Isocrates combats with a foil, Demosthenes with a sword."

Negotiations, which were carried on with little sincerity between Philip and the Athenians, had long suspended a dangerous explosion. The Macedonian monarch always pursued the accomplishment of his object, which was to make himself be considered by the Greeks as the protector of the weak, and the enemy of tyranny. He had engaged in the sacred war, which, on account of a small piece of land taken from the temple of Delphi, had set all Greece in flames (B. C. 346). The Athenians, however, did not suffer the king to be ignorant, that they sufficiently understood his designs.

At length, Athens formed a powerful league, the force of which was displayed in the plains of Chæronea, near Thebes, in Bœotia. Before the sun was risen, both armies were in battle array (B. C. 338). Philip headed the right wing of the army, which was opposed to the fury of the Athenians; and his son Alexander commanded the left wing, which faced the sacred band of the Thebans. The king perceived with the eye of a general, that the Athenians, who had gained some advantage, advanced incautiously in the pursuit. "They know not how to conquer," said he; and immediately falling upon them, a great number was killed, and the rest escaped by a precipitate and shameful flight.

After the victory, Philip sang with an air of burlesque and merriment the beginning of the decree, which Demosthenes had drawn up as a declaration of war against him. On this occasion, Demades, the Athenian orator, asked him, why he assumed the character of Thersites, when nature had given him that of Agamemmon. After the first transports of joy were over, Philip dispatched his son Alexander, and Antipater the most confidential of his ministers, to conclude a peace with the Athenians, on such favourable terms as they had no reason to expect.

Having thus completely effected the conquest of Greece, the Macedonian monarch immediately turned his thoughts towards that of Asia, and was appointed by the Greeks general of the expedition. But in the midst of these designs, a misunderstanding took place between Philip and Olympias, which caused him to divorce his wife, and to marry Cleopatra, the niece of Attalus, a Macedonian nobleman. The king of Macedon, however, was soon

after slain at the celebration of certain games in honour of the marriage of his daughter Cleopatra. The assassin was Pausanias, who had been insulted by Attalus, and who stabbed the king in the left side, as he marched in a grand procession with the images of the twelve great deities of Greece.

(B. C. 336.) Thus fell Philip in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. By considering his character, we shall find, that he possessed foresight and sagacity peculiar to himself, and that he united the several prominent features which distinguished the Grecian nation; valour, eloquence, address, flexibility in varying his measures without changing his purpose, and the most extraordinary powers of application and perseverance. Had he not been interrupted in the middle of his career, it is more than probable that he would have subdued the Persian empire.

On the death of Philip, his son Alexander ascended the throne of Macedon, and took possession of a kingdom, which the policy of the preceeding reign had rendered flourishing and powerful. The works of Homer were the particular study and delight of this prince. Being appointed general of the combined army destined to invade Asia, he prepared for his eastern expedition, by diffusing among the northern barbarians the terror of his name. In the mean time, a report being industriously spread through Greece, that Alexander was dead, the Thebans slew Amyntas and Timolaus, commanders of the citadel, and expelled the Macedonian garrison. Alexander being informed of these proceedings, marched his army into Bœotia, and on the Thebans refusing to deliver up the guilty, took their city by assault, which he razed to the ground* (B. C. 335); and put to the sword, or dragged into captivity, the greater part of the citizens. This dreadful example struck terror into the Greeks.

Before Alexander set out for Asia, he consulted the oracle of Apollo at Delphi, and the priestess refusing to place herself on the tripod, the king attempted to force her, when she said, "My son, you are invincible." Alexander immediately replied, "It is enough, I accept the answer." When he arrived at the ruins of Troy, he sacri-

* By the particular orders of Alexander, the house and family of Pindar the poet were saved from destruction.

ficed victims in honour of the heroes (B. C. 334), whose remains were deposited in the tombs around Ilium, and particularly of Achilles, from whom he pretended to derive his descent. After passing the Granicus, he subjected Halicarnassus, which had been defended by Persians, to the same fate as Thebes. The city was razed to the foundation, and reduced to ashes.

From Macedonia, Alexander proceeded along the coast of the Mediterranean; advanced to Egypt; traversed the sandy deserts of Libya; visited the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulph; and explored the countries around the Caspian Sea, and the Palus Mæotis. In a word, he overran in every direction the interior part of that vast continent, and, in the short space of ten years, formed an empire more extensive than any that ever existed. Our admiration, however, is succeeded by a painful sentiment, a kind of indignation, when we enquire the motive and design of these warlike expeditions. It is not only the extreme of folly, but of wickedness, to attack peaceable nations, to ravage their plains, burn their towns, and drag into captivity their peaceable inhabitants. In this view, Alexander was only a scourge, the remembrance of whom ought to be effaced from the annals of the world. He made a journey to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and exposed his army to the danger of perishing in the sand, that he might be declared the son of the deity who was worshipped in that sacred place.

Antipater, whom Alexander had left as governor of Macedonia, found it extremely difficult to confine within the prescribed bounds the haughty and imperious Olympias, who was sure of her son's affection. The king, having received from him a long letter full of complaints, said, "Antipater is ignorant, that one single tear of a mother can efface a thousand such letters." He, however, still continued him as governor.

The court of Alexander had become extremely brilliant by the concourse of great lords, princes, and even kings, who came to solicit his favour. Their flattery poisoned the mind of the monarch, who was charmed with their excessive praise and adoration, and offended that the Macedonians did not treat him with the same marks of respect. Clitus, a veteran soldier, who had saved the life of Alexander at the battle of the Granicus, hearing the king extolled above Castor and Pollux, and even Hercules

started up and said, "I cannot endure such fulsome and ridiculous language, by which you insult the gods, whilst you depreciate ancient heroes, that you may flatter the ears of a living prince." Alexander hearing this, and other severe expressions, ran him through the body with a pike, and laid him dead on the spot. The crime, however, was no sooner committed, than passion gave way to repentance; but, even on this occasion, the king was secured against remorse by flattery and false reasoning.

The courtiers and cringing parasites resolved that Alexander should be a god, and receive divine honours. But Callisthenes, the king's friend, observing that the Macedonians were thrown into consternation by this proposal, and kept a profound silence, commenced an harangue, in which he drew a distinction between the honours due to the gods, and those which belong to men, how exalted soever may be their station.

Alexander seemed to have no other pleasure than that of ravaging, subduing, and destroying, wherever he experienced resistance. Always inflamed with the ardour of conquest, he employed fire and sword to accomplish his purposes, and delighted in danger, to which he exposed himself with a kind of heedless fury. He seemed resolved to stop only at the extremities of the world. However, when he prepared to pass the river Hyphasis, the most eastern of the five great streams, whose confluence forms the Indus, the Macedonians refused to march farther eastward, and protested that they would no longer hazard their lives to gratify his ambitious and oppressive designs. Being, therefore, obliged by the immoveable and unanimous resolution of his European troops, to set bounds to his trophies, he commanded twelve Macedonian altars, equal in height, and exceeding in bulk the greatest towers in that country, to be erected on the western bank of the Hyphasis, as marks of the extremity of his conquests.

But even in his return, the restless curiosity and insatiable ambition of Alexander prepared new toils and dangers for himself and his troops, and fresh oppressions for the neighbouring nations. The nearer he approached to Babylon, where it is supposed he intended to fix his residence, the more he endeavoured to incorporate the Persians and the Macedonians into one nation. With this view, he espoused two princesses of the blood-royal, one of whom was the daughter of Darius; and he gave

in marriage to Hephæstion another daughter of the same monarch. His favourites followed his examples, and selected young women from the noblest of the Persian families. All these marriages took place in one day.

Alexander spent the last year of his life in the central provinces of his empire. He repaired the harbours; constructed arsenals; and formed at Babylon a basin, sufficient to contain a thousand galleys. The important design of uniting, by laws and manners, the subjects of his extensive monarchy, was continually present to his mind. In each company of the barbarian armies, he added four European to twelve Asiatics; and in the Macedonian squadrons and battalions, he intermixed such of the barbarians as were most distinguished by their strength, their activity, and their merit. His life, however, was now drawing to a close. He indulged in banquetting and festivity, to which after the fatigues of war he had been extremely addicted. An excessive abuse of wine put a period to his existence in the thirty-third year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign (B. C. 324.)

In reviewing the life and actions of this monarch, it must be confessed that Philip cultivated and produced that martial discipline, which distinguished the troops of Alexander, and by which he was enabled to perform such great achievements; but the intemperance, the cruelty, the vanity, and the passion of Alexander for useless conquests, were all his own. The fortunate issue which attended his enterprises, was little more than an accidental advantage; but his victories served to crown the pyramid of Grecian glory, and demonstrated to what degree of excellence the arts of peace can promote those of war. A magnificent tomb was erected for his remains in the city of Alexandria, which he had founded.

On the death of Alexander, his generals divided the provinces among themselves, as governors, under the inspection of Perdiccas, to whom belonged the right of giving protection to the royal family. This family was considered as consisting only of Aridæus, the brother of the late king, till it should be known what child Roxana, the widow of Alexander, should bring into the world. However, Perdiccas, full of ambition, confined, whilst he appeared to defend Aridæus, who was weak both in body and mind. He then caused the last two wives, and many of the relations of Alexander, to be put to death.

He issued all his orders, and distributed kingdoms, in the name of Aridæus and the young Alexander, of whom Roxana had been delivered; but his design to obtain the empire was so well known, that those who dreaded his ambition, united against him. Perdikkas, therefore, marched against Ptolemy, the most powerful of his rivals, who had been appointed by Alexander governor of Egypt; and he was slain by his own soldiers, who ascribed their defeat to the bad disposition of his forces.

(B. C. 321.) Antipater who now alone assumed the authority of protector, made a new partition of the provinces. Ptolemy had Egypt, Libya, and the parts adjacent; Seleucus, the government of Babylon; Antipater, Susiana; Cassander, Caria; Antigonus, Phrygia: and Antipater, Macedonia, with the command of the king's household troops. These are the principal generals, who established thrones on the ruins of that of Alexander.

As soon as Antigonus was informed that Antipater was dead, and that Polyperchon had been appointed tutor to the king, he determined to render himself sovereign of Asia. Polyperchon, therefore, invited all the governors to defend the royal family against Antigonus, and sent against him an army under the command of Eumenes, whose attachment to the family was well known. These two great generals displayed their talents, and every resource of the military art, in two campaigns, which were terminated by a decisive action in favour of Eumenes. After being defeated in most of the engagements which took place during several campaigns, Antigonus determined to attack Eumenes in his winter quarters (B. C. 315), when his troops were dispersed over the whole country. However, the infantry of Eumenes had the superiority, and effectually routed the phalanx of the enemy; but Paucestus, commander of the cavalry, secretly went over to the interests of Antigonus, and left the infantry to combat alone. Antigonus detached a part of his cavalry, and possessed himself of the baggage, women, and children.

The chief part of the loss fell on the *Argyraspides*, some of Alexander's soldiers, who had been distinguished by this name, because the king had given them bucklers of silver. These soldiers becoming mutinous on account of their loss, Teutamus, who commanded a battalion of them, and who had long inclined to Antigonus, sent to

that general, and demanded of him the booty which he had taken. Antigonus replied, that he would restore the baggage and all the property, provided they would deliver up Eumenes. The troops, therefore, seized Eumenes, and sent him bound to Antigonus, who ordered him to be put to death.

Ptolemy, Lysimachus, Cassander, and Seleucus, entered into a confederacy, by which they were bound to maintain the rights of each other. After various turns of fortune, Lysimachus and Seleucus on the one side, and Antigonus with his son Demetrius on the other, each at the head of a powerful army, met near Ipsus, a small town in the province of Phrygia. In this memorable and eventful engagement, both armies fought with great bravery (B. C. 301); and victory was long and ably contested. But, at length, Antigonus lost his life, and Demetrius with difficulty effected his escape at the head of nine thousand men. In consequence of this victory, the whole empire of Alexander was divided as follows: Egypt, Libya, Arabia, and Palestine, were assigned to Ptolemy; Macedonia and Greece to Cassander; Bithynia and Thrace to Lysimachus; and the remaining territories in Asia, which extended as far as the river Indus, and which were called the kingdom of Syria, were given to Seleucus.

Thus, in consequence of the battle of Ipsus, Seleucus was rendered master of all Asia. Two competitors being engaged in a dispute respecting Macedonia, Alexander, the son of Cassander, who was one of them, invited Demetrius to his assistance; but Alexander endeavouring to procure his assassination, Demetrius killed him, and was proclaimed king of Macedonia by the unanimous voice of the soldiers (B. C. 294). Being thus raised again to a throne, he made preparations for re-conquering that part of Asia, from which he had been expelled. He marched an army into Asia, and had some success in different engagements. Seleucus, however, who had married his daughter Stratonice, surrounded Demetrius, and pent him up in the defiles of mount Taurus. Reduced to a state of despair, Demetrius made a last effort, and opened a passage for himself into Syria; but falling sick of a violent fever, he was deserted by most of his soldiers, and the rest delivered him into the hands of Seleucus. Contrary to the principles which he professed, Seleucus surrounded him with a numerous guard, which

conducted him to a fortress situated in a peninsula, where he was closely confined.

For some time, Demetrius indulged the hope that he would be restored to liberty; but finding his expectations not realized, and that he could not obtain even an interview with Seleucus, he appeared resigned to his fate. While immersed in the deepest sadness, all his attempts to emerge from it were fruitless. The efforts which he made for that purpose, brought on a disease, which terminated his life and his troubles at the age of fifty-four years (B. C. 284). Thus died this great prince, who was the ablest engineer of his time, gentle and agreeable in his manners, fond of letters, magnanimous in his conduct, generous and beneficent, and adored by his family. His son Antigonus, a model of filial affection, offered to become a hostage for his father, and proposed as a price of his deliverance to resign all the states which he held in Greece. He assumed the dress of mourning, and assisted at no festivals, during the imprisonment of his father. He caused the ashes of Demetrius to be inclosed in a golden urn, and deposited in a magnificent tomb at Demetriades, which Demetrius had built.

The deplorable disasters which arose from the conquests of Alexander in Asia, prepare us for scenes still more sanguinary in Macedonia. Alexander had left the government of that country in the hands of Antipater, who was of an illustrious family, and highly esteemed by his father Philip. It was difficult for him to live with Olympias in such a manner as to prevent her from assuming too much authority, without at the same time giving the son cause to blame the restraint imposed on his mother. But the account of Alexander's death occasioned great embarrassments to Antipater. A part of the Grecian cities having expelled the Macedonian garrisons, he was obliged to negotiate with some of them, and to treat others with rigour. The Athenians compelled him to sue for peace, but refused to listen to any proposals, unless he would surrender at discretion. Antipater, however, extricated himself from this disagreeable situation, and obliged the Athenians to accept the same conditions, as those which they wished to impose on him. Through delicacy, he neglected his son Cassander, and bequeathed to Polyperchon, the eldest of all Alexander's captains at that time in Europe, the two high offices of protector and

governor of Macedonia. Thus did Antipater sacrifice the interests of his family to that of the empire, and died full of years and of glory.

Polyperchon was equally destitute of wisdom, resolution, and probity; but his son Alexander possessed greater abilities. They recalled Olympias to Macedonia; and this artful woman induced them to introduce into the government of different cities, changes, which produced discontent. Polyperchon issued his orders with great haughtiness, in the name of Aridæus, the brother of Alexander, who had been acknowledged king, in conjunction with young Alexander, the son of Roxana. Aridæus had married his own niece Eurydice, the granddaughter of Philip, between whom and Olympias a mutual distrust and hatred arose. Olympias was supported by Polyperchon, while Eurydice sought the assistance of Cassander, the son of Antipater.

(B. C. 318.) A civil war now commenced in Macedonia; and the two heroines, each at the head of an army, seemed determined to hazard the event of a battle. But at the moment when the action began, Olympias presented herself before the soldiers of Eurydice, who, appalled by her majestic air, and the idea that they were about to combat with the widow of Philip, and the mother of Alexander, dropped their arms. They abandoned the unfortunate Eurydice and her husband, whom the cruel Olympias caused to be imprisoned, and afterwards put to death.

Cassander, having received intelligence of what was going on, hastened into Macedonia with his forces, and obliged Olympias to retire to Pydna, a sea-port and well fortified town. Cassander immediately invested the city by land, whilst his fleet blocked up the entrance of the harbour. The condition of the besieged soon became truly deplorable. The royal family fed on the flesh of horses; the soldiers, on their dead companions; and the elephants, on saw-dust. Olympias endeavoured in vain to procure the assistance of Polyperchon: Cassander seized the messenger, and disappointed her design. She, therefore, gave up all hopes, and surrendered herself and her army to Cassander. This event determined the fate of all Macedon, which submitted soon after to the conqueror.

Olympias was accused before the assembly of Macedonians, and, without being heard in her defence, con-

demned to die. Cassander offered her a ship to make her escape to Athens; but she refused to fly, and demanded to be heard in the assembly of the Macedonians. She was, therefore, delivered up to the relations of those whom she had put to death. Cassander sent Roxana and her son Alexander to Amphipolis, where they were treated only as private persons, and soon after removed to a solitary castle; and when he had accustomed the Macedonians to forget them, he caused them to be put to death, laid aside the name of protector, and assumed the title of king.

Cassander experienced, in his exalted station, all the inquietudes of sovereign power, and was encompassed by crafty and powerful enemies. However, he restored peace and abundance to his kingdom; rebuilt the cities which had been destroyed; united to his crown that of Epirus; maintained with honour and advantage the war against Antigonus, who was master of Asia; imposed laws on the Ætolians and the Illyrians; subdued Poloponnesus; and died in quiet possession of the throne of Macedon (B. C. 298). After his death, his two sons, Antipater and Alexander, laid claim to the kingdom. The latter invited Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, to his assistance. Demetrius assassinated the young prince; and then justifying the death of Alexander in a formal harangue, the Macedonians saluted him king.

(B. C. 294.) Demetrius, instead of repairing the devastations which his kingdom had suffered, immediately engaged in new military enterprises against Greece, Ætolia, Epirus, and Thrace. At the same time, he abandoned himself to luxury, vanity, and extreme haughtiness. This conduct so disgusted the Macedonians, that they expelled him from the country, and gave the crown to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus (B. C. 287). Thus Macedonia, to which Epirus had been annexed under Cassander, was itself annexed to Epirus under Pyrrhus.

(B. C. 285.) In a short time, Pyrrhus was expelled the kingdom by Lysimachus, king of Thrace, whose court, through female intrigues, became filled with dissensions, which terminated in an act of assassination. The injured faction sought the assistance of Seleucus, who, in hopes of annexing Macedonia and the states of Greece to his other dominions, espoused the cause of the unfortunate family, and met Lysimachus on the borders of Phrygia. *They were the only surviving generals of Alexander, and*

both fought with great bravery; but the army of Lysimachus was defeated, and himself slain. Seleucus passed the Hellespont, and advanced to Lysimachia in Thrace, where he was basely murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, whom he had generously relieved, and for whose sake he had commenced the war. Ptolemy having performed this execrable deed, put on a diadem, and boldly declared himself king of Macedon (B. C. 280). Not long after, a body of three hundred thousand Gauls, leaving their country in quest of new settlements, divided into three parties, one of which made an irruption into Macedonia. Ptolemy met them with the whole force of his kingdom, and a battle ensued, in which the Macedonian monarch was defeated and killed. During the first moments of surprise, the Macedonians elected Meleager, the brother of Ptolemy; but finding him destitute of abilities, they deposed him two months after. They then chose Antipater, the grandson of Cassander, who reigned only forty-five days. Sosthenes, a Macedonian lord, with the remains of the Macedonian troops, attacked and defeated the Gauls; but another swarm of these barbarians cut Sosthenes and his army to pieces.

After the death of Sosthenes, and the evacuation of Macedon by the Gauls, Antigonus Gonatus, the son of Demetrius, assumed the sovereignty of the kingdom (B. C. 278). His reign was mild and just, and ought to have given satisfaction to the Macedonians; but they suffered themselves to be dazzled by the brilliant valour of Alexander, the son of Pyrrhus, who claimed the rights of his father, and whose cause they espoused. Antigonus, therefore, deserted them, and retired into Greece; but his son Demetrius expelled Alexander, and recovered the kingdom for his father, who died after a reign of thirty-four years.

(B. C. 243.) Demetrius II. succeeded his father Antigonus in the sovereignty. He imitated the mild virtues, rather than the military talents, of the late king. His reign was tranquil, but short; and he died greatly regretted by his subjects (B. C. 237). He was succeeded by his brother Antigonus Doson, who was an excellent warrior, and an able politician, and under whose government Macedonia prospered. He died in the service of his country, and entreated the army to remain faithful to his nephew and pupil Philip, the son of Demetrius II.

(B. C. 221.) Antigonus Doson was succeeded by Philip, the son of Demetrius, who, though only in the seventeenth

year of his age at the time of his accession to the throne, was intelligent, affable, munificent, and attentive to the duties of his station. However, wars, losses, and treaties frequently repeated, employed more than thirty years of his reign, till the Romans had reduced him to such a degraded state, that he was obliged to send his younger son Demetrius to Rome as an hostage, confine himself to the ancient bounds of Macedon, deliver up his ships of war, and pay a fine of one thousand talents. The Romans sent back Demetrius, filled with esteem and affection for them.

Perses, the eldest son of Philip, was born of a concubine; but, notwithstanding the illegality of his birth, he hoped to ascend the throne of Macedon. Demetrius endeavoured to soften the resentment of his father against the Romans; and Philip was induced to believe that his son was more attached to these republicans, than to him. Perses, who was gloomy, artful, and malicious, endeavoured to strengthen these suspicions against Demetrius, who was of a cheerful, bland, insinuating disposition, and adorned with every virtue. Philip having plundered the city of Maronea, contrary to the command of the Romans, was summoned to justify his conduct before the senate. He, therefore, sent his son Demetrius to apologize to the Romans; but when the young prince heard the articles of impeachment read against Philip, he was so affected, that he was unable to utter a word in the defence of his father. The senators encouraged him to read the notes, which he had brought for the justification of the king, whose excuses were accepted; and Demetrius returned with the ratification of a treaty, which contained the express clause, that Philip owed it entirely to their regard for his son.

This circumstance was by no means agreeable to the king, who feared that the Romans were endeavouring to attach Demetrius more to their own interests, than to that of Macedon. This suspicion was inflamed by the insinuations and dark artifices of Perses, who forged letters, which he caused to be sent to Rome, and in which the pretended plans of Demetrius were unfolded with so much simplicity, that the king was deceived, and ordered his son to be arrested, and soon after put to death. Philip, however, in a little time, was apprised of the injustice of this proceeding, and that the letters had been forged to answer the purposes of Perses. After receiving this information, he fell into a melancholy, which differed little from madness, and which in a short time put an end to his existence.

Notwithstanding the advice of Philip to the Macedonians in favour of Antigonus, the son of Demetrius, Perseus assumed the reins of government on the death of his father (B. C. 179). The first measures of his government were remarkably mild. He affected a strict regard to justice; assumed an air of benignity and gentleness; and sat daily to hear causes, on which he generally decided with prudence and discernment. He also sent an embassy to the Romans, entreating them to renew the treaty made with his father, and to acknowledge him king of Macedon; in return for which he promised, that he would act as their faithful ally, and undertake no war without their permission. The senate, therefore, acknowledged his title to the throne, and pronounced him the friend of the Roman people.

His conduct was so gracious, and his insinuations and intrigues with his neighbours so effectual, that most of the Grecian states inclined to Perseus, who soon pretended to be the patron of Grecian liberty against the pride and domination of Rome. In his own kingdom, he amassed great sums of money, provided magazines for a numerous army for ten years, and kept up a military establishment of thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse. The Romans being informed of these proceedings, sent ambassadors to question Perseus as to the authenticity of the reports. The king, however, answering only with pride and insolence, a war commenced between the two nations.

The Romans sent an army under the command of P. Licinius Crassus, whom Perseus defeated with great slaughter (B. C. 171), but who would grant no other terms of peace, than submitting to the discretion of the Roman people. After the war had continued three years, the Romans became dissatisfied with the conduct of their general (B. C. 168), and invested the consul Paulus Æmilius with the command of the army in Macedonia. This commander attacked Perseus, and drove him from his entrenchments on the banks of the river Enipeus, whence he retired precipitately to Pydna. Here both armies came to a general engagement, in which the Macedonians were broken and routed with a great slaughter (B. C. 167). Perseus fled to Pella, the chief and strongest city of Macedon, and thence to the island of Samothrace, where he sought refuge in the temple of Castor and Pollux.

Abandoned now by all the world, without forces, without friends, and without hope, Perses surrendered himself and his eldest son Philip into the hands of the Romans. He approached the consul with the most abject servility, bowing his face to the earth, and endeavouring with his suppliant arms to grasp his knees. "Wretched man!" said Æmilius, "why dost thou acquit fortune of what might seem her crime, by a behaviour which evinces that thou deservest not her indignation? Why dost thou disgrace my laurels, by shewing thyself unworthy of having a Roman for an adversary?" He then gave him his hand, would not suffer him to kneel, and encouraged him with an assurance of safety from the Roman people. Perses was afterwards led in triumph through the streets of Rome, and then cast into a dungeon, where he famished himself to death. Philip died before his father; but Perses left a son named Alexander, who was put apprentice to a carpenter, and afterwards became a clerk or secretary to the senate.

Though Paulus Æmilius declared Macedonia free, yet he divided the kingdom into four governments, forbade the inhabitants of one government to have the least intercourse with those of another, enacted new laws, took away the most valuable property, obliged all the nobility above the age of fifteen to leave the country, and prohibited the working of the richest mines. Whilst the nation possessed the shadow of liberty, it was in reality reduced to the most abject slavery.

It is not, therefore, to be wondered, that the Macedonians rejoiced to see a pretender to the throne, who called himself the son of Perses, and said that he was born by a concubine, named Cyrthesa (B. C. 152). This pretended prince was called Andriscus; but when he appeared, he assumed the appellation of Philip. As his first attempt was not successful, he retired to Syria, to Demetrius Soter, who had married a sister of Perses, but who delivered him up to the Romans, to avoid incurring their resentment. This pretender, however, escaped to Thrace, and having collected some troops entered Macedonia, which he soon subdued. He was brave and intrepid, but, like Perses, cruel, avaricious, proud in prosperity, and mean in adversity. He imprudently exposed his crown to the hazard of a general battle, and, being defeated, was taken prisoner, and served to adorn the triumph of Q. Cæcilius Metellus,

his conqueror. Such was the end of this war, which afforded what had been long desired, an opportunity of reducing Macedonia into a province of Rome (B. C. 148). Some other pretenders arose, who claimed a right to the sovereignty of Macedonia; but their claims were easily set aside by the Romans, who continued to retain this country as a province.

Questions on the History of Macedonia

How was Macedonia bounded, and how formed into a kingdom? What is the nature of the climate, and what are the productions of the country?

What was the religion of the Macedonians, and what the form of government? What offices did the kings perform, and what was the character of the laws? What was the character of the Macedonians, and what their education? Of what did the infantry consist, and what was the nature of the Macedonian phalanx?

Whence did Caranus carry a colony into Macedonia, and who were his immediate successors? What were the character and achievements of Perdiccas the First, and when do we attain historical ground?

What was the character of Perdiccas the Second, and by whom was he succeeded? What were the character and conduct of Archelaus the First, and for what was he distinguished?

After the death of Archelaus, by whom was the throne filled? To whom did Amyntas transmit the crown, and how long did he reign? Whom did Alexander leave, by whom was Pausanias deposed, and who re-instated Perdiccas on the throne? What hostages were carried to Thebes, and with whom was Philip, the brother of Perdiccas, placed? In what was Philip instructed, what were the examples before his eyes, and how did he profit by them?

What was the state of Macedon, when Philip, on the death of Perdiccas, secretly left Thebes? What was the conduct of Philip, and what did he accomplish? What did Philip become in a few years, and to whom is his reign most interesting?

How did Philip conceal his ambitious projects, and what did he say when he attacked Amphipolis? Under what pretences did he take Potidea and Pydna? and the whole country between the rivers Nessus and Strymon? Of what was he regardless?

Whilst Philip was returning out of Thrace, what news reached him, and what was his exclamation?

After extending and securing his kingdom, what was the sovereignty at which he was grasping, and how did he attempt to obtain it? In this, who was his greatest opponent, and what did Philip say of Demosthenes? How did he characterise the eloquence of Demosthenes?

What had long suspended a dangerous explosion, and what did the Macedonian monarch strive to be considered? In what war had the king engaged, and did the Athenians let him know that they understood his designs?

In what plains was the force of Athens and her allies displayed, and when were the armies in battle array? Where did Philip and his son

Alexander command? What observation did the king make, and what was the issue of the engagement?

After the victory, what was the conduct of Philip, and how was he reproved by Demades? Whom did Philip dispatch to conclude a peace with the Athenians?

Of what expedition was Philip appointed general by the Greeks? Why did Philip divorce Olympias, and whom did he marry? Where, in what manner, and by whom was Philip slain?

When died Philip, and what was his character? Is it probable that he would have subdued the Persian empire?

By whom was Philip succeeded? What works were the delight of Alexander, and for what expedition did he prepare? What was the conduct of the Thebans on a report of the death of Alexander, and how were they punished? Whose house and family were saved from destruction?

What said the priestess at Delphi, when Alexander would have forced her to place herself on the tripod, and what was the reply of Alexander? What did Alexander, when he arrived at the ruins of Troy, and what was the fate of the city of Iliacarnassus?

What countries did Alexander visit and explore, and in the space of ten years what extensive empire did he form? In what light do we view these warlike expeditions, and how is Alexander to be considered? For what purpose did Alexander make a journey to the temple of Jupiter Ammon?

In what difficult situation did Antipater, whom Alexander had left governor of Macedonia, find himself with respect to Olympias, and what was the observation of Alexander, on receiving from him a letter full of complaints?

What had the court of Alexander become, and by what was his mind poisoned? What was the observation of Chtus on hearing Alexander too highly extolled, and how was he punished? By what was this crime of the king succeeded?

Who resolved to deify Alexander, and who shewed the folly of this proposal?

What seemed to be the only pleasure of Alexander, and what did he employ to accomplish his purposes? Where only did he seem resolved to stop, and where did the Macedonians refuse to march farther eastward? What, and where, did Alexander cause to be erected, as marks of the extremity of his conquests?

What did he prepare for himself and his troops in his return, and the nearer he approached to Babylon what did he the more endeavour to effect? What marriages in the army of Alexander took place in one day?

Where did Alexander spend the last year of his life, what did he perform, and what was continually present to his mind? How did he intermix the Europeans and the Asiatics in his armies? In what did Alexander indulge, and what put a period to his existence?

What was the character of Alexander, and for what was he indebted to his father Philip? How is the fortunate issue of his enterprises to be regarded, and what did his victories demonstrate? Where were his remains deposited?

How did the generals of Alexander divide the provinces? Of whom did the royal family consist? What was the conduct of Perdicas, and what the character of Aridæus, the late king's brother? Whom did Perdicas put to death, in whose name issue all his orders, and why did

those who dreaded him unite against him? Against whom did he march, and by whom was he slain?

How did Antipater partition the provinces, and who were the principal generals of Alexander that established thrones?

When did Antigonus determine to render himself sovereign of Asia, and by whom was he opposed? How were two campaigns terminated, and by what means did Antigonus possess himself of the baggage, women, and children?

On whom did the loss chiefly fall, for what purpose was Eumenes seized and sent to Antigonus, and what was the fate of Eumenes?

Into what confederacy did Ptolemy, Lysimachus, Cassander, and Seleucus enter, and what was the issue of the battle fought near Ipsus in Phrygia? How was the whole empire of Alexander now divided?

Of what was Seleucus rendered master, and who was proclaimed king of Macedonia? What attempts did Demetrius make to re-conquer that part of Asia from which he had been expelled, into whose hands was he delivered, and where immured?

What was the fate of Demetrius, and what was his character? What did Antigonus, the son of Demetrius, offer to resign; what dress did he assume, and where did he deposit the ashes of his father?

What took place in Macedonia, to whom did Alexander commit the government of that country, and how was Antipater circumstanced? What did the death of Alexander occasion, and what conditions did Antipater oblige the Athenians to accept? To whom, without regarding the interest of his family, did Antipater bequeath the two high offices of protector and governor of Macedonia?

What was the character of Polyperchon, and of his son Alexander, and what did Olympias persuade them to introduce? In whose name did Polyperchon issue his orders, and whom did Aridaeus marry? How were Olympias and Eurydice disunited, and by whom was each of them supported?

What now commenced in Macedonia, and what was the fate of Aridaeus and his wife Eurydice?

Whither did Cassander oblige Olympias to retire; by whom was Pydna besieged; to whom did Olympias surrender herself and her army; and to whom did all Macedon submit?

By whom was Olympias condemned to die, and to whom was she delivered? Whither were Roxana and her son Alexander sent, and what was their fate?

After assuming the title of king, what did Cassander experience? What actions did he perform, and how did he die? By whom was the crown now claimed, whom did Demetrius assassinate, and by whom was he saluted king?

In what new military enterprises did Demetrius immediately engage, and what was his conduct? To whom did the Macedonians give the crown, and under whom was Macedonia annexed to Epirus?

By whom was Pyrrhus expelled the kingdom? Where did Seleucus and Lysimachus engage, and what was the fate of Lysimachus? By whom was Seleucus murdered, and did Ptolemy Ceraunus declare himself king of Macedon? What was the fate of Ptolemy, and by whom was he succeeded? Why was Meleager deposed, and who was chosen in his room? What was the fate of Sosthenes?

After the death of Sosthenes, who assumed the sovereignty of Macedon, and what was the character of his reign? Whose cause did the Mace-

donians espous'd, and whither did Antigonus Gonatus retire? Did Demetrius expel Alexander, and recover the kingdom for his father?

By whom was Antigonus succeeded, and what was his character, and the nature of his reign? By whom was Demetrius the Second succeeded, and what was the character of himself and his reign? To whom did Antigonus Doson recommend the army to be faithful?

By whom was Antigonus Doson succeeded, and what was his character? To what degraded state was Philip reduced by the Romans, and with what sentiments did Demetrius return from Rome?

Notwithstanding the illegality of his birth, did Perseus hope to ascend the throne of Macedon? Against whom did Demetrius endeavour to soften the resentment of his father Philip? Did Perseus endeavour to strengthen the suspicions of Philip against Demetrius? For what was Philip summoned to Rome, what defence did Demetrius offer for his father, how was it accepted by the senate, and what express clause did the treaty contain?

What was the suspicion of Philip; and by whom, and how, was this suspicion inflamed; and what was the fate of Demetrius? Was Philip convinced of the injustice of this proceeding, and what did it occasion?

By whom was Philip succeeded, and what were the first measures of the government of Perseus? What offer did Perseus make to the Romans, and what title did the latter acknowledge?

What was the conduct of Perseus, and to what did he pretend? What sums of money did he amass, and what military establishment keep up? What occasioned a war between Perseus and the Romans?

What terms of peace only would P. Licinius Crassus grant? Whom did the Romans invest with the command of the army of Macedonia, what victories did he obtain over the Macedonians, and whither fled Perseus?

To whom did Perseus surrender himself, and how did he approach the Roman consul? What was the observation of Paulus Æmilius on his behaviour, and what his conduct to Perseus? What was the fate of Perseus and of his son Philip, and what that of his son Alexander?

What was the conduct of Paulus Æmilius to Macedonia, and to what was Macedonia reduced?

What pretender to the throne arose, and how was he received by the Macedonians? What name did this pretender assume, and to whom did he retire after being unsuccessful in his first attempt? Whither did this pretender escape, and how did he enter Macedonia? What was his character, to what did he expose his crown, and what was his fate? What did this war afford to the Romans? What other pretenders arose, and how did the Romans retain this country?

SELEUCIDÆ*, IN SYRIA.

SELEUCUS, the founder of the Syro-Macedonian empire†, was employed from his earliest youth, in the service of Alexander the Great, and acquired such reputation by

* They were so called from Seleucus, the founder of the empire.

† Under this empire, Syria was divided into three parts, viz. Syria Proper, Coele Syria or the Hollow Syria, and Syria Palestina.

his prudence and bravery, that, after the death of his benefactor, he was raised to the government of Babylon: The same spirit of ambition, which caused the other captains of Alexander to grasp at the honours of royalty in their respective allotments, induced Seleucus to betray his trust, and erect a new monarchy. However, he was opposed by Antigonus, who sent a powerful army to expel him from Babylon, which he was accordingly compelled to abandon; but the acts of violence and rapine committed by the soldiery, soon roused the resentment of the inhabitants, and induced them to assist Seleucus in the recovery of their city (B. C. 312). Having defeated the adverse troops, and firmly established his authority among the Babylonians, Seleucus subjected to his new empire, Media, Persia, Bactria, Hyrcania, and all the other provinces, formerly conquered by Alexander, on this side of the Indus, and assumed the title of "king of Babylon and Media." He afterwards made himself master of the Upper Syria, and built the city of Antioch (B. C. 300), which soon became the metropolis of the East.

Antiochus, the son of Seleucus, fell violently in love with the beautiful Stratonice, his mother-in-law; but not daring to avow his passion, he silently languished under it for some time, and became so weak, that scarcely any hopes were entertained of his life. At length, Erasistratus, an eminent Greek physician, surmised the cause of his distemper, and possessed himself of the secret. He immediately presented himself before Seleucus, and told him that the prince was incurable, being unfortunately enamoured of a lady whom he could never obtain. When Seleucus was informed of the object of his passion, he resigned his wife to his son, and generously presented him with the sovereignty of Upper Asia.

(B. C. 284) Some unfortunate dissensions having arisen between Arsinoë, the wife of Lysimachus, and her sister Lysandra, who had been united to Agathocles, the son of Lysimachus, the former prevailed on the old king to put Agathocles to death. Upon which, Lysandra, with her children and her brother Ptolemy Ceraunus, sought the protection and assistance of Seleucus, who took the field against his old ally. Lysimachus crossed the Hellespont, and drew up his troops against Seleucus, at Curopedion, in Phrygia. After an obstinate and a bloody conflict, Lysimachus was slain, and Seleucus left master of the field.

However, Seleucus did not long enjoy his triumph, for he was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, whose unparalleled wickedness, cruelty, and ingratitude, have been already noticed in the history of Egypt*. Such was the catastrophe of a potentate, who was distinguished by an extraordinary love of justice, a taste for polite literature, and a peculiar regard for religion.

Antiochus, the son of Seleucus, commenced his reign by a renunciation of the crown of Macedon in favour of Antigonus, and a successful expedition against the Gauls, which procured him the surname of Soter, or Saviour. This monarch, after sentencing one of his sons to death for having fomented a rebellion during his absence, and nominating his other son, Antiochus, to succeed him in the throne of Syria, paid the debt of nature, in the nineteenth year of his reign.

(B. C. 261.) Antiochus, on ascending the throne, assumed the surname of Theos, or God. He engaged in a war with Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt (B. C. 250). Arsaces, a valiant Parthian, roused to fury by the unmanly behaviour of Agathocles, governor of Parthia, and of the adjacent countries, excited a revolt, and eventually founded a new and formidable empire, that of the Parthians. About the same time, Theodotus, governor of Bactria, threw off his allegiance, and assumed the honours of royalty. Antiochus was privately poisoned by his wife Laodice, whom he had divorced, but afterwards received into favour. This woman placed on the royal couch a person, who, by personating the dying monarch, prevailed on the Syrian nobles to acknowledge Seleucus Callinicus, the son of Laodice, as their lawful sovereign, though the crown belonged to a male infant of queen Berenice.

(B. C. 246.) Seleucus Callinicus, on his ascending the throne, pursued the unfortunate Berenice and her son with such unrelenting hatred, that he besieged them in an asylum, whither they had fled for refuge, and where they, with all their Egyptian attendants, were inhumanly massacred. Ptolemy Euergetes, king of Egypt, revenged the murder which he could not prevent, by seizing the cruel Laodice, whom he condemned to death. Afterwards, Seleucus found himself engaged in war with his own brother, Antiochus Hierax, whom he had offended by refusing

* See page 22.

him the sovereignty of Asia Minor. At length, after a dreadful effusion of blood, and many obstinate conflicts, Antiochus was totally defeated, and compelled to take refuge in an enemy's land, where he was murdered by a band of robbers. Afterwards, Seleucus was taken prisoner by Arsaces, king of Parthia, and died in captivity.

(B. C. 226.) Seleucus, the eldest son of the deceased prince, ascended the throne, and assumed the surname of Ceraunus, or the Thunderer, an appellation ill suited to his debility both of body and mind. After a contemptible reign of three years, he was poisoned by two of his chief officers, and the crown placed on the head of his brother Antiochus, who, on account of his illustrious actions, was afterwards surnamed the Great.

(B. C. 223.) Antiochus was scarcely settled on the throne of his ancestors, before Alexander and Molo, two of his generals, who had been intrusted with the government of Persia and Media, revolted from their allegiance, and endeavoured to establish themselves as sovereigns in their respective districts. Antiochus marched against the insurgents in person, and defeated them in an engagement; and the two brothers, in order to elude the vengeance of the conqueror, killed themselves. Having thus re-established the affairs of the East (B. C. 220), Antiochus began to prepare for two other dangerous enterprises—one against Ptolemy, king of Egypt, who had taken Coele-Syria, and the other against his uncle Achæus, who had usurped the sovereignty of Asia Minor. After a long and dangerous war, in which Antiochus was generally defeated, Ptolemy concluded a peace on terms not very disadvantageous to the Syrian monarch. Achæus defended himself in the city of Sardis, for upwards of a year, against two powerful armies, but was at length delivered up by the treachery of some Cretans, and expiated his crime by his death*.

The war in Asia being thus terminated, Antiochus made preparations for the reduction of the eastern provinces which had shaken off the Syrian yoke. Accordingly he marched into Media and Parthia, where he obtained great

* When Antiochus saw the great, but unfortunate man, to whom he owed his crown, loaded with chains as a common malefactor, he was greatly agitated, and burst into a flood of tears; but reasons of state prevailing over compassion, he passed the sentence of decapitation on the object of his pity the same morning.

and important advantages. Having settled the affairs of Arachosia, Drangiana, and Carmania, he returned to his capital, after an absence of seven years, with a reputation which began to be formidable to the powers of Europe, as well as to those of Asia.

(B. C. 214.) Antiochus hearing of the death of Ptolemy Philopater, entered into an alliance with Philip, king of Macedon, for the purpose of depriving Epiphanes, the young king, of his dominions. The Syrian monarch, therefore, marched into Cœle-Syria and Palestine, and reduced all those provinces with their cities and dependencies. This conduct gave umbrage to the Romans, who, having taken on them the tuition of Epiphanes, enjoined Philip and Antiochus to withdraw their forces from the newly conquered provinces, under pain of their heaviest displeasure. Antiochus, however, proposed a treaty of marriage between his daughter Cleopatra and Epiphanes, which, as he promised to give up the conquered provinces by way of dowry to the young princess, was ratified without hesitation. Whilst Antiochus was occupied in rebuilding the city of Lysimachia, which had been founded by Lysimachus, on the isthmus leading to the Thracian Chersonesus, but which had been lately destroyed by the Thracians, the Romans endeavoured in vain to dissuade him from settling* in Europe.

If the claimants had spoken out clearly, without involving their pretensions in haughty speeches, which, though admired, exhibit only contests of pride, they would have been better understood. In that case, Antiochus would have said, "I have need of Thrace in order that I may penetrate into Greece, and ensure that power which I wish to establish over such states as I think proper;" and the Romans would have replied, "From Greece you may advance to Italy, and, therefore, we will not suffer you to set a foot in Europe." Such, in a few words, were the motives of this war, which procured to the Romans an entrance into Asia, and which, in the course of time, carried them much farther into that vast country than they had at first imagined.

(B. C. 195.) Hannibal placed himself under the protection of Antiochus, and fixed his resolution of making war upon the Romans. This great general, expelled by

* Seleucus designed to make Lysimachia the capital of a new kingdom.

the hatred of the Romans from the ruins of Carthage, where he still caused the rival of his country to tremble, had taken shelter in the court of Syria, where he made Antiochus acquainted with the stratagems of the senate, and shewed him that the Romans wished only to amuse him by their embassies, and that they were determined, at any rate, to involve him in war, in order that they might subject him to their dominion. As Antiochus was well convinced of the truth of what Hannibal said, he made great preparations, and hesitated only in regard to the time and the manner of employing them. Hannibal traced out the plan of an attack to be made in conjunction with the Gauls, the Carthaginians, their African allies, and the discontented cities of Greece, whom the enemy of the Romans proposed to put in motion. He fixed the station for the armies and fleets, with the proper points of support, and developed a general invasion of Italy, which would have greatly embarrassed the Romans had it been wholly adopted, and the operations been speedily commenced.

Antiochus, however, suffered himself to be anticipated by the Romans. His fleet, under the command of Polyxenidas, was entirely defeated, with the loss of forty-two large vessels and thirteen gallies. On the news of this disaster, Antiochus was so violently agitated, that he did not observe his usual prudence, but hastily withdrew his forces from Lysimachia and the other cities of the Hellespont. Afterwards, perceiving that in this proceeding he had acted contrary to his own interest, he exclaimed, "I do not know what god has infatuated me. All things happen contrary to my expectation. Heaven seems to persecute me: and I can only infer from all this, that my ruin approaches."

At this time, Antiochus had to contend with the two Scipios; for the Romans, whom he ought to have kept within their own territories, had passed the Hellespont and entered Asia. The Syrian monarch was seized with terror when he saw himself ready to be attacked in the centre of his states, and his kingdom exposed to the fate of a battle. The Romans seemed determined to force the Syrian entrenchments; and this resolution excited the resentment of Antiochus, who prepared for a decisive engagement.

The battle commenced with a motion of the armed chariots which Antiochus ordered to advance, and cut their

way through the enemy's lines. These, however, were soon thrown into confusion by Eumenes, king of Pergamus; and the Roman cavalry bore down all before them. Fifty thousand foot, and four thousand horse soldiers, fell on the side of Antiochus in this engagement and pursuit, and fifteen hundred were taken prisoners. From this victory the consul assumed the name of Asiaticus, though his exertions were greatly inferior to those of his allies. This unfortunate engagement was followed by a disgraceful peace, in which Antiochus was obliged to resign his pretensions to Europe, confine his authority to Asia beyond mount Taurus, pay the Romans fifteen thousand Euboic talents for the expences of the war, deliver up Hannibal and others, and give twenty persons as hostages for his sincerity. The unhappy Antiochus was soon after murdered by some of his subjects, who were irritated to see the treasures of their temples carried away for paying the Romans. Ancient historians highly commend him for his humanity, clemency, and munificence; and the prudence of his conduct was attended with brilliant success till the fiftieth year of his age; but after that period he gradually declined in political importance, and the ignominious peace with Rome obscured the glory of his former achievements.

(B. C. 187.) On the death of his father, Seleucus Philopator, surnamed also Soter, ascended the throne, and though he retained the regal dignity upwards of eleven years, he made a very poor figure, on account of the miserable state to which the Syrian empire had recently been reduced. He was poisoned by Heliodorus, who placed the diadem on his own head, but who was obliged to resign the crown to Antiochus, brother of Seleucus.

This monarch assumed the name of Epiphanes, or the *Illustrious*; but that title was ill applied, for his conduct was rather suitable to a wretched lunatic than a sovereign prince. A war broke out between Syria and Egypt, and Antiochus led his army into the centre of that kingdom, made himself master of Memphis, and took Ptolemy prisoner. (B. C. 169.) The Egyptians placed on the throne his younger brother, to whom they gave the name of Euergetes, which was afterwards changed to that of Physcon. Antiochus returned a third time to Egypt to usurp the crown for himself; but Euergetes and his sister Cleopatra obtained the mediation of the Romans, who in-

forbade the Syrian monarch from carrying on hostilities against Egypt, on pain of forfeiting their friendship. Antiochus, therefore, put Ptolemy Philomater in possession of the whole kingdom, except Pelusium, which he craftily retained in his own hands, that he might enter Egypt at any opportunity. Euergetes having consented to share the crown with his brother, Egypt was restored to its former tranquillity. Antiochus now openly avowed his intention of annexing Egypt to Syria; but the Romans compelled him to renounce all his pretensions and withdraw his army.

(B. C. 165.) Antiochus having passed a ridiculous decree, commanding all the nations subject to Syria to renounce their religion, and to conform to that of the Greeks, Persia, Armenia, and Judea revolted. The king determined to go in person to Jerusalem, and to extirpate the whole Jewish nation. This barbarous design, however, was frustrated by the interference of Divine Providence; for Antiochus was suddenly seized with a dreadful distemper, and, after languishing for some time, expired in acute agonies, after an unhappy reign of eleven years and a few months.

This monarch left an infant son, named Antiochus Eupator, and a nephew called Demetrius, the son of Seleucus Philopator, who was a hostage at Rome. On the death of his uncle, Demetrius applied to the senate for his liberty, and reminded them of his indubitable title to the crown of Syria. The Romans, however, fearing that Demetrius, who was of an aspiring genius and extraordinary abilities, might eventually become a powerful foe to the republic, declared in favour of the young Antiochus, and sent guardians to assume the government of his dominions, under pretence of assisting him with their counsel during his minority. On the arrival of the Roman envoys in Syria, Lysias, who had assumed the regency, and the tutelage of the young prince, engaged an African to assassinate Octavius, the head of the embassy. Soon after, Demetrius effected his escape from Rome, and spreading abroad a report that he was sent by the Romans to take possession of his hereditary kingdom, he was proclaimed king at Tripolis, received the voluntary submissions of the cities and fortresses, and caused Lysias and Eupator to be put to death.

(B. C. 162.) Demetrius had no sooner established himself on the throne, than he redressed the grievances of the Babylonians, who gave him the surname of Soter, or Savi-

our. He effected a complete reconciliation with Rome, and prevailed on the senate to give him the title of king; but giving himself up entirely to ease and luxury, a conspiracy was formed against him. This conspiracy, however, being discovered, Holophernes, the chief of the conspirators, was sentenced to close confinement. Demetrius having given umbrage to the Romans, the senate passed a decree in favour of a young man called Balas, who, personating the son of Epiphanes, claimed the Syrian diadem, and assumed the name of Alexander. Thus countenanced by the cot-script fathers, and supplied with powerful succours from Egypt, Pergamus, and Cappadocia, Alexander advanced against Demetrius, who was defeated and slain by his competitor's troops, in the twelfth year of his reign.

(B. C. 150.) Alexander having, by this victory, made himself master of the whole Syrian empire, espoused Cleopatra, the daughter of Ptolemy, king of Egypt, and devoted his time to banquetting and voluptuousness, while the affairs of the state were entrusted to the management of a cruel and tyrannical minister, called Ammonius. Demetrius, however, the eldest of the deceased king's sons, attempted the recovery of his inheritance, and obtained possession of Cilicia. Alexander, distrusting the fidelity of the Syrians, invited to his assistance his father-in-law, the king of Egypt, who advanced to his relief at the head of a powerful army; but Ptolemy, finding that a design was formed against his own life by Ammonius, gave his daughter (the wife of Alexander) in marriage to Demetrius, whom he promised to seat on the throne of Syria. The inhabitants of Antioch seized the opportunity of revenging themselves on the tyrannical Ammonius, whom they murdered as he was attempting to escape in a female habit. Alexander being defeated soon after, was treacherously assassinated by one Zabdiel, a nobleman of Arabia, with whom he sought an asylum.

Demetrius, having firmly established himself in the kingdom of his ancestors, assumed the name of Nicator, or the *Conqueror*. He imprudently left the whole care of the government to Lasthenes, who, being of a severe and imperious disposition, alienated the minds of the Syrians from their new king, by a series of cruelties and oppressions. At length, Diodotus, who was afterwards called Tryphon, entertained thoughts of seizing the crown, and prevailed on Zabdiel to put Antiochus, the son of Alexander

Babæ, into his hands. Accordingly, Tryphon arriving in Syria with the young prince, laid claim to the crown as guardian and protector of Alexander's son, and was joined by multitudes of disaffected persons, who eagerly enlisted under his banners. An engagement ensued, in which Demetrius was overthrown, and compelled to take shelter within the walls of Selsucia; and the Antiochans declared for the conquerors, and, soon after, placed the young prince on the throne, to whom they gave the surname of *Theos*, or *the God*.

(B. C. 144.) Tryphon, having effected the first part of his design by investing Antiochus with the *name* of a king, conciliated the esteem of the Jewish people, who fought with irresistible fury on behalf of the new sovereign. However, Jonathan, prince of the Jews, was basely assassinated by the contrivance of Tryphon; and Antiochus, being afflicted with the stone, was wilfully murdered under a surgical operation. The traitor then seized the diadem, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Syria, in the room of his deceased pupil. Demetrius took the field against the Parthians, over whom he obtained some advantages; but, being deluded by a treaty of peace, his person was seized, and all his troops were slaughtered. Afterwards, Mithridates, king of Parthia, treated him with great kindness, and gave him the princess Rhodoguna in marriage. On receiving this intelligence, Cleopatra offered her interest and her hand to Antiochus Sidetes, the second son of Demetrius Soter. This prince no sooner appeared, than most of Tryphon's forces abandoned their posts, and joined Antiochus, who proved completely victorious, and killed his rival in the city of Apamea.

Antiochus being now established on the throne of his ancestors, led his troops against Phraates, king of Parthia, upon the plausible pretence of delivering his brother from captivity. He recovered all the provinces, except Parthia, which had originally belonged to the Syrian empire; but whilst his troops were separated, and put into winter-quarters, the inhabitants of that country massacred them all in one day, and Antiochus perished in the general slaughter.

(B. C. 130.) After being thrice defeated by Antiochus, Phraates had liberated Demetrius, and sent him with a body of troops into Syria; but on the news of the massacre, he dispatched a party of cavalry to bring him back.

Demetrius, however, effected his escape, and recovered his crown. He imprudently took part in the quarrel between Ptolemy Physcon and his divorced queen Cleopatra. Upon which, the former raised up an impostor, called Alexander Zebina, whom he furnished with an army to take possession of Syria, under the title of the son of Alexander Balas. The discontented Syrians, eager to shake off the yoke of Demetrius, flocked to the stranger, and unanimously took up arms against their lawful sovereign, who, on suffering a total defeat in the neighbourhood of Damascus, was obliged to flee, and sought refuge in Tyre, where he was treacherously murdered. Upon the news of his death, Cleopatra, his first wife, was permitted to retain a small part of the kingdom; and the rest devolved on Zebina.

Seleucus, the eldest son of Demetrius Nicator, assumed the regal dignity, and was proclaimed in the provinces which adjoined to that part of Syria held by his mother. Cleopatra, fearing that he might revenge the murder of his father, to which she was supposed to be accessory, put him to death with her own hand, and recalled from Athens her other son, Antiochus, who is generally designated by the surname of Grypus, from his aquiline nose, and whom she declared king of Syria, but reserved all the authority for herself. Ptolemy Physcon insisted that Zebina should do homage for his new dominions, and pay an annual tribute to Egypt. Zebina, however, refusing his obedience, Physcon gave the princess Tryphœna in marriage to Antiochus, and sent a powerful army, which defeated Zebina, who, being delivered up into the hands of Grypus, was put to death.

Cleopatra, perceiving that her son assumed the supreme authority, called to the crown another son she had by Antiochus Sidetes, and prepared a deleterious potion for the king; but Grypus, being apprised of her design, compelled her to drink it herself, and thus preserved his own life by the sacrifice of a woman, whose unparalleled crimes had been, for many years, the scourge of Syria.

(B. C. 120.) During the space of eight years, Grypus swayed the sceptre in profound peace; but, at length, Antiochus Cyzicenus, his half brother, contended with him for the sovereignty, and obliged him to divide the empire between them. Cyzicenus reigned at Damascus over Cœle-Syria and Phœnicia, while Grypus retained Antioch and all the other provinces. Grypus left five sons, viz.

Seleucus, Antiochus, Philip, Demetrius, Eutheres, and Antiochus Dionysius, all of whom reigned, or attempted to reign, in their turns. Their history is replete with the most horrid crimes—poisoning, assassination, incest, and fratricide.

A long series of wars and calamities exhausted the patience, and materially injured the fortunes, of the Syrians, who, resolving to exclude the turbulent descendants of Seleucus from the throne, bestowed the crown on Tigranes, king of Armenia, who swayed the Syrian sceptre for many years. At length, Pompey subdued Syria (B. C. 83), which was reduced to a Roman province, after it had been governed upwards of two hundred and fifty years by the family of Seleucus.

Questions on the History of the Seleucidæ, in Syria.

From whom did the Seleucidæ derive their name?

Who was the founder of the Syro-Macedonian empire, how was Syria divided under this empire, and to what was Seleucus raised after the death of Alexander the Great? What induced Seleucus to erect a new monarchy, and how and by whom was he opposed? What provinces did Seleucus subject to his new empire, and what title did he assume? Of what country did he afterwards render himself master, and what city did he build?

With whom did Antiochus, the son of Seleucus, fall in love; to whom divulge the secret, and what was the conduct of Seleucus on this occasion?

On what account, and by whom, was Agathocles, the son of Lysimachus, put to death? Whose protection and assistance did Lysandra seek, and what was the conduct of Lysimachus? What was the issue of the engagement between Lysimachus and Seleucus? By whom was Seleucus murdered, and what was the character of his murderer? For what was Seleucus distinguished?

With what did Antiochus, the son of Seleucus, commence his reign, and what procured him the surname of Soter, or Saviour? When, and after what actions, did Antiochus pay the debt of nature?

What surname did his son Antiochus assume, and in what war did he engage? Why did Arsaces revolt, and what new empire did he found? What honours did Theodotus, governor of Bactria, assume? How, and by whom, was Antiochus poisoned? How, and by whom, were the Syrian nobles prevailed on to acknowledge Seleucus Callinicus, the son of Laodice, as their lawful sovereign?

What was the conduct of Seleucus Callinicus to Berenice and her son, and how, and on whom, did Ptolemy Euergetes revenge the murder? On what account was Seleucus engaged in war with his brother Antiochus Hierax, and what was the fate of Antiochus? Where died Seleucus?

What surname did Seleucus, the eldest son of Seleucus Callinicus, assume? What was his fate, on whose head was the crown placed, and what was Antiochus afterwards surnamed?

What did Alexander and Molo, two of the generals of Antiochus, attempt; how, and by whom, were they defeated; and what was the

fare of the two brothers? For what two dangerous enterprises did Antiochus now prepare? On what terms was peace with Ptolemy, king of Egypt, concluded? Where, and how long, did Achaëus, the king's uncle, defend himself, and what was his fate? How did Antiochus feel for his uncle?

When the war in Asia was terminated, for what did Antiochus make preparations, and what advantages did he obtain in Media and Parthia? What affairs did he settle, when did he return to his capital, and with what reputation?

For what purpose did Antiochus enter into an alliance with Philip, king of Macedon? Whither did Antiochus march, and what provinces reduce in two campaigns, and what did the Romans enjoin Philip and Antiochus? What treaty did Antiochus propose, and how was it ratified? From what did the Romans endeavour to dissuade Antiochus, and what had Seleucus designed to make Lysimachia?

If the claimants had spoken out clearly, how would they have been understood? What would Antiochus have said, and what the Romans? What were the motives of this war, and what did it procure to the Romans?

Of what did Hannibal fix the resolution of Antiochus? Whence and by whom had Hannibal been expelled, where had he taken shelter, and of what did he inform Antiochus? What was the conduct of Antiochus, and in what only did he hesitate? What plan did Hannibal trace out, and what station for the armies and fleets did he fix?

By whom was Antiochus anticipated, and with what loss was his fleet defeated? On the news of this disaster, what was the conduct of Antiochus, and what was his exclamation afterwards?

With whom had Antiochus to contend at this time, whither had the Romans penetrated, and with what was Antiochus seized when he saw himself ready to be attacked? For what did Antiochus prepare?

With what did the battle commence, and by whom were the chariots thrown into confusion? What was the loss on the side of Antiochus, and what name did the victorious consul assume? What was the nature of the peace that followed, what was the fate of Antiochus, and for what is he highly commended? Till what period was his conduct attended with success, and what did his peace with the Romans effect?

By whom was Antiochus succeeded, and what figure did Seleucus, surnamed Soter, make? What was his fate, and to whom was Heliodorus obliged to resign the crown?

What name did Antiochus assume, and how was the title applied? What was his conduct in Egypt, and whom did the Egyptians place on the throne? For what purpose did Antiochus return a third time into Egypt, and what part did the Romans take? Whom did Antiochus put in possession of the kingdom of Egypt, and how was Egypt restored to tranquillity? What was the design of Antiochus in regard to Egypt, and to what was he compelled by the Romans?

What was the consequence of the decree which Antiochus passed, whom did he determine to extirpate, and by what means was his design frustrated?

Whom did Antiochus leave, and for what did Demetrius apply to the senate? Why did the Romans declare in favour of the young Antiochus, and what was the conduct of Lysias on the arrival of the Roman envoys? What did Demetrius effect, and were was he proclaimed king?

What grievances did Demetrius redress, and what was he surnamed?

With what state did he effect a reconciliation; why was a conspiracy formed against him, and to what was the chief of the conspirators sentenced? In whose favour did the Romans pass a decree, and by whom was Demetrius defeated and slain?

Whom did Alexander espouse, and what was his conduct? What did Demetrius, son of the late king, attempt and obtain? Whose assistance did Alexander invite, and what was the conduct of Ptolemy, king of Egypt? What was the fate of Ammonius, and by whom was Alexander assassinated?

What name did Demetrius assume, and to whom did he leave the whole care of the government? What thoughts did Diodotus, afterwards called Tryphon, entertain, and how did he lay claim to the crown of Syria? Where was Demetrius compelled to take shelter, whom did the people of Antioch place on the throne, and what surname did they give him?

With what name did Tryphon invest Antiochus, and whose esteem did he conciliate? By whose contrivance was Jonathan, the prince of the Jews, assassinated, and what was the fate of Antiochus? What did Tryphon then seize? Over whom did Demetrius obtain some advantages, and by what was he deluded? By whom was Demetrius treated with great kindness, and to whom did Cleopatra offer her interest and her hand? Whom did Antiochus Sidetes conquer and slay?

On what pretence did Antiochus lead his troops against Phraates, king of Parthia, and what was the issue of this expedition?

What was the conduct of Phraates to Demetrius, and what did the latter recover? In whose quarrel did he take part, and whom did Ptolemy raise up against him? Against whom did the Syrians take up arms, and what was the fate of Demetrius? Who retained a small part of the kingdom, and on whom did the rest devolve?

Who assumed the regal dignity, and in what provinces was he proclaimed? By whom and for what reason was Seleucus put to death, whom did Cleopatra recal and declare king of Syria, and what authority did she reserve for herself? What did Ptolemy Physcon demand from Zebina, what did the former in consequence of the latter's refusal, and what was the fate of Zebina?

Whom did Cleopatra call to the crown, what did she prepare for the king, and how did Grypus preserve his own life?

How long did Grypus reign in peace, with whom was he afterwards obliged to divide the empire; where did Cyzicus reside, and where Grypus? What sons did Grypus leave, and with what is their history replete?

By what were the Syrians exhausted, and on whom did they bestow the crown? By whom was Syria subdued, and when was it reduced to a Roman province?

ROME.

KINGS.

ITALY was anciently known by the different appellations of Saturnia, Ænotria, Hesperia, and Ausonia. On three sides, it is surrounded by the sea; and on the fourth it has

the lofty Alps for its barrier. It is about nine hundred miles in length, but very unequal in breadth; and in shape, it resembles a man's leg. In this country were the Pelasgi, the Siculi, the Arcades, the Rutuli, the Volsci, the Etrusci, the Ligures, the Sabini, the Latini, and other tribes or nations, of whom very little more is known, respecting the generality of them, besides the name. The modern Genoa was inhabited by the Ligurians. The Venetians held that part of their late domains which lies to the east of the Adige. The Etruscans and the Umbrians possessed the middle districts of the peninsula, Etruria, and the Ecclesiastical State. The Sabines, the Latins, and the Volsci, inhabited that tract which extends from the Tiber to the frontiers of Naples; Capua and Campania are now the territory of Naples; and the Marsi, the Samnites, the Apulians, and the Lucanians, divided the rest of the country.

Æneas, having escaped with the companions of his misfortunes, from the ruins of Troy, arrived on the coast of Latium. He was kindly received by Latinus, king of the country, who, on his assisting him against the Rutuli, assigned him and his companions a portion of land, and afterwards bestowed on him his only daughter, Lavinia, in marriage, with the right of succession to the crown. On the death of his father-in-law, the kingdom of Latium fell to Æneas, who swayed the sceptre with equal wisdom and impartiality, employed himself in consolidating the two different nations who owned his authority, and built the city of Lavinium. He established the Greek games and festivals, the rights and worship of Vesta, the veneration of the Lares, and the belief in a palladium. He engaged the Rutuli and the Tyrrhenians, near the banks of the Numicus, and being hardly pressed by the enemy, was unfortunately precipitated into that river and drowned.

Æneas was succeeded by Ascanius, Iulus, or Julius, his son, who was born to him by Creusa before the fall of Troy. Ascanius founded Alba Longa, which he made the capital of his new sovereignty. His mother-in-law, Lavinia, finding herself pregnant, and fearing some violence on the part of Ascanius, withdrew to a wood, where she was delivered of a son, whom she named Æneas after his father, and Sylvius from the place of his birth. The last sovereign left a son, called also Iulus; so that between him and Sylvius lay the right of succession to the Latin throne. The in-

habitants of Latium, however, united Alba and Lavinium under one sovereignty, which they conferred on Sylvius, but bestowed the sovereign pontificate on Iulus.

After a succession of thirteen kings of the line of Sylvius, Procas bequeathed the throne to his eldest son, Numitor; but Amulius, the brother of Numitor, usurped the government, and after murdering his nephew Ægestus, compelled Rhea Sylvia, Numitor's only daughter, to dedicate herself to Vesta, or perpetual virginity. Rhea Sylvia, however, was violated by a man, whom, in palliation of her offence, she averred to be Mars, the god of war. She was delivered of twin boys, who, inclosed in a cradle, were thrown into the Tiber, and floated to the foot of mount Aventine, where they were found by Faustulus, the king's shepherd. This man carried them home to his wife, Acca Laurentia, who nursed them as her own.

After arriving at manhood, the twins, Romulus and Remus, having discovered their grandfather Numitor, collected the shepherds, deposed Amulius, and reinstated Numitor on the throne. They then resolved to build a city upon those hills where they had formerly kept their flocks; and Numitor assigned them a certain territory, and permitted any of his subjects to settle in their new colony. But a dissension arising between the two brothers, respecting the spot where the city should stand, Remus was killed, and it is said by Romulus himself. The city was called Rome, after the name of its founder, and was built upon the Palatine hill (B. C. 748). It contained at first, about a thousand houses, or huts: and even the palace of Romulus was built of reeds, and thatched with straw. In order to increase its inhabitants, it was made a sanctuary for all malefactors, slaves, and such as were desirous of novelty.

Romulus left the people at liberty to choose their king; and they concurred in electing their founder. Accordingly, he was acknowledged as chief of their religion, sovereign magistrate of Rome, and general of the army. Besides a guard to attend his person, he was preceded, wherever he went, by twelve men armed with axes tied up in a bundle of rods or fasces, who were to serve as executioners of the law, and to impress his new subjects with an idea of subjection. The whole power of the king, however, consisted in convening the senate, assembling the

people, conducting the army, and appointing the questors or treasurers of the public money.

The senate was composed of a hundred of the principal citizens of Rome, who were intended to act as counsellors to the king. The king appointed the first senator, who governed the city during the general's absence. In this respectable assembly, all the important business of the state was transacted, the king himself presiding, though every question was determined by a majority of voices. They were called Fathers, from their supposed paternal affection for the people.

To the patricians, who were descendants of the senators, belonged all the principal offices of the state, as well as of the priesthood, to which they were appointed by the senate and the people. The plebeians, who composed the third part of the legislature, had the power of sanctioning those laws which were passed by the king and the senate. By their suffrages, all things relative to peace or war, the election of magistrates, and even the choosing of a king, were confirmed. By them, all enterprises against the enemy were proposed, while the senate possessed only a negative voice. Each plebeian had a right to elect from the patrician order a protector, who was to assist him with his advice and fortune, plead for him before the judge, and rescue him from every oppression. On the other hand, the client attached himself to the interests of his patron: he assisted him, if poor, in portioning his daughters, in paying his debts, or his ransom, if he were taken prisoner; followed him in every service of danger; gave him his vote when he became a candidate for any office; and was prohibited from giving testimony in a court of justice, if his evidence affected the welfare of his patron.

The religion of that age consisted chiefly in a firm reliance on the knowledge of soothsayers, who, from observing the flight of birds, and the entrails of beasts, pretended to direct the present, and dive into futurity. Romulus ordained, that no new divinities should be introduced into public worship; that the priesthood should continue for life; and that none should be eligible to this office before the age of fifty. In order that the priests might be qualified to teach others, he ordered, that they should be the historiographers of the times.

Romulus divided the people equally into three tribes; to each of which he assigned a different part of the city. Each

of the tribes was again subdivided into ten curiæ, or companies, which consisted of a hundred men, with a centurion to command it; a priest, denominated Curio, to perform the sacrifices; and two of the principal inhabitants, called Duumviri, to distribute justice.

A government thus wisely instituted, induced numbers to claim its protection; and it seemed to want only women to perpetuate its duration. By the advice of the senate, Romulus offered to cement the most strict confederacy with the Sabines, on the terms of intermarriages: the Sabines, however, who were then considered as the most warlike people of Italy, not only rejected the proposition with disdain, but some added raillery to the refusal. Romulus, therefore, resolved to obtain by force what was denied to entreaty; and proclaiming a feast in honour of Neptune, the Sabines and others came as spectators, bringing with them their wives and daughters. After the games had commenced, the Roman youth rushed among the strangers with drawn swords, and seizing the youngest and most beautiful women, carried them off by violence. In vain the virgins at first opposed the attempts of their ravishers; from being objects of aversion, the betrayers soon became the partners of their dearest affections.

However, the citizens of Cecina, Antemnæ, and Crustumium, resolving to revenge the common cause, made separate inroads into the Roman territory, and were easily overthrown by Romulus. A severe war took place between the Sabines and the Romans, and the former made themselves masters of the Roman citadel; but hostilities were at length terminated by the women, whom the Romans had violently seized, and who besought the combatants to lay aside their animosity, and live as friends. The two nations listened to this advice. It was agreed, that Romulus and Tatius, king of the Sabines, should reign jointly in Rome with equal power and authority; that a hundred Sabines should be admitted into the senate; that the city should still retain its former name, but that the citizens should be called Quirites, a name till that time peculiar to the Sabines; and that both nations being thus united, such of the Sabines as were inclined, should be admitted to enjoy all the privileges of denizens of Rome. Tatius was killed about five years after, and Romulus once more became sole monarch in the state which he had founded. During the co-reign of Tatius, the equestrian order, an

intermediate link between the patricians and the plebeians, appears to have been instituted.

Romulus added new laws on marriage, which prohibited wives from separating from their husbands; but empowered husbands to repudiate their wives, and even put them to death if they were detected in adultery, in attempting to poison them, in making false keys, or even in drinking wine to excess. The father had an entire power over his offspring, and could sell or imprison them at any period of their lives, or in any stations to which they were arrived.

Elevated by success, Romulus enlarged his views, and affecting absolute sway, wished to control those laws to which he had formerly professed implicit obedience. This so enraged the senate, that the founder of Rome suddenly disappeared, and the multitude were taught to believe that he had been taken up into heaven.—Romulus was temperate, brave, and politic; but he was also irascible, proud, and cunning. He seems to have been admirably fitted for the important part which he performed; and, while we view the mighty fabric of empire, the foundation of which he laid, we cannot regard him without some degree of enthusiasm.

(B. C. 711.) As Romulus left no heir, the city seemed greatly divided in the choice of a successor; but after some time it was agreed, that the party which elected should nominate from the body of the other. Accordingly, the choice being left to the Roman part of the senate, they pitched upon Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, who was about forty years of age, and who had long been illustrious for piety, justice, moderation, and an exemplary life. He was skilled in all the learning and philosophy of the Sabines, and, though the son-in-law of king Tatius, with reluctance accepted the dignity which was conferred upon him.

In the reign of Numa, we contemplate only the pacific virtues, which are always most honourable to a king, and most beneficial to his people. This good man spent all his time in inspiring his subjects with a love of piety, and a veneration for the gods. He built many new temples, and instituted feasts; and he so regulated his life as to persuade his people, that he held a particular correspondence with the goddess Egeria. He built the temple of Janus*, which was to be shut in the time of peace and open

* Janus had two faces, looking different ways, denoting the prudence of considering both the past and the future.

in that of war; ordained vestal virgins, who had very great privileges allowed them; instituted pontiffs; and founded the orders of the Salian and Fecial priesthood, the one to preserve the sacred shields called Ancilia, which it was supposed would prevent Rome from ever being taken, and the other to judge of the equity of war. He encouraged agriculture, and divided among the lower orders of the people, those lands which Romulus had gained in war; softened the rigour of the laws relative to parents and children; regulated the kalendar; and abolished all distinctions between Romans and Sabines.

(B. C. 665.) On the death of Numa, the sovereign power again devolved on the senate, with whom it continued till the people elected Tullius Hostilius for their king. This monarch was immoderately fond of war; and the Albans were the first people that gave him an opportunity of indulging his inclinations. But when the armies of the two nations were on the point of commencing the engagement, the Alban general stepped forward, and offered to decide the dispute by single combat, adding that the people whose champion was overcome, should submit to the other as conqueror. In each army were three twin brothers: those of the Romans were called Horatii: and those of the Albans, Curiatii. They were all remarkable for their courage, strength, and activity; and to them it was resolved to commit the management of the combat. Two of the Horatii fell dead upon the spot; and the other, betaking himself to flight, was followed by all the Curiatii, whom he successively attacked and killed. The Alban army immediately consented to obey the Romans. The victorious youth, returning triumphant from the field, found his sister lamenting the loss of her lover, one of the Curiatii, to whom she was betrothed. Transported with passion, he slew her in a rage; and for this action the magistrates condemned him: but though he obtained pardon by appealing to the people, his laurels were for ever tarnished.

Hostilius quelled the insolence of the Fidenates and the Veii, and utterly demolished the city of Alba, the inhabitants of which were transplanted to Rome. He obtained a signal victory over the Sabines, and engaged in a doubtful war with the Latins. He died after a turbulent and warlike reign of thirty-two years, some say by lightning, together with his whole family; others, with greater probability,

by assassination; and that the fire which consumed his palace was kindled to conceal the crime.

(B. C. 634.) After a short interregnum, Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king by the people, whose choice was confirmed by the senate. He inherited the piety and the virtues of his grandfather, to which he added the talents of a warrior. He conquered the Latins, whom he removed to Rome, and increased his own territories by the addition of part of theirs. He raised temples, fortified the city, built a prison for malefactors, and formed a sea-port at the mouth of the Tiber, called Ostia. He died after a glorious reign of twenty-four years.

Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, being appointed guardian to the sons of the late king, assumed the surname of Tarquinius, from the city of Tarquinia (B. C. 610), the place of his former residence. His father was a merchant of Corinth, who, having acquired considerable wealth by trade, settled in Italy; and his son Lucumo married a woman of family in the city of Tarquinia, and removed to Rome. His elegant address, his frequent invitations, and the many benefits which he conferred, gained him the esteem and admiration of the people, who, by his influence and intrigues, were induced to set aside the children of the late king, and to elect him their sovereign. He added a hundred members to the senate, which increased the number to three hundred. He also added three to the vestal virgins, heretofore only four; and he laid the foundation of an amphitheatre for the combats of men and beasts. Tarquin was victorious in his wars. He defeated the Sabines, and compelled them to accept peace, at the expence of a considerable part of their territories, and of Collatia, a large city, five miles east of Rome. He also obtained several advantages over the Latins, from whom he took many towns.

Tarquin, having thus forced his enemies into submission, surrounded the city with stronger and more extensive walls; adorned the forum, or market-place, with porticoes; laid the foundation of the Capitol, which, however, he did not live to finish; and formed the Cloacæ, those subterraneous aqueducts, which carried into the Tiber the rubbish and superfluous waters of Rome. He assumed the insignia of royalty; as a crown of gold, an ivory throne, a sceptre with an eagle upon the top, and robes of purple. He was assassinated at the age of eighty, and in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

(B. C. 573.) On the death of Tarquin, Servius Tullius, who had married his daughter, secured his election to the vacant throne by his own address, and the intrigues of Tanaquil, his mother-in-law. However, he obtained the crown solely by the senate's appointment, without attempting to gain the suffrages of the people. After being acknowledged king, the first object of his care was to increase the power of the senate, by depressing that of the people. For this purpose, he ordered an exact enumeration to be made of all the citizens of Rome, their children, and servants, with a just valuation of their property and estates. Their numbers were found to amount to above fourscore thousand men, capable of bearing arms; a vast increase in the space of one hundred and seventy-five years, which had elapsed since the building of Rome. He then divided the people into six classes. The first class comprised the body of the senate, the patricians, and all those whose fortunes were above eleven hundred thousand asses, or about three hundred and sixty-six pounds of our money. This class was subdivided into fourscore centuries, or companies, one half of which, being composed of the most aged and respectable, were to remain at home for the defence of the city; the other half, composed of the youthful and the vigorous, were to follow the general, and to march into the field. In the first class also were comprised the knights or horsemen, which consisted of eighteen centuries, with two more of the machinists, who followed the camp. The second class consisted of twenty-two centuries, or companies, and comprised those who were worth above seventy-five thousand asses. The third class consisted of twenty centuries, and was composed of such as were worth fifty thousand asses. The fourth class consisted also of twenty centuries, and was composed of those who were worth twenty-five thousand asses. In the fifth class were thirty centuries; and the qualification was eleven thousand asses. The sixth and lowest class consisted of but one century, and was exempted from paying taxes and going to war. In all the classes, a part of the old men were to remain at home for the defence of the city; and the more youthful were to be employed in the armies. Each century was commanded by a centurion of distinguished valour and experience. It was also ordained that each century should supply an equal share to the exigencies of the government, and that the citizens, paying their

taxes by centuries, should give their votes, in all public transactions, in the same manner. By this stroke of policy, the senate, consisting of a greater number of centuries than all the other classes put together, out-weighed them in every decision, and the plebeians had only the shadow of authority left.

Tullius instituted another regulation, which he called a *lustrum**, and by which all the citizens were to assemble once every five years in complete armour, and in their respective classes, in the Campus Martius, where they were to deliver in an exact account of their families and fortune. This monarch, who was eminent for justice and moderation, entertained the generous intention of laying down his power, and, after forming the kingdom into a republic, of retiring into obscurity. This noble design, however, was frustrated by his son-in-law, Tarquin, who assassinated Tullius, after an useful and a prosperous reign of forty-four years.

(B. C. 529.) Lucius Tarquinius, who afterwards acquired the surname of Superbus, or the Proud, placed himself on the throne in consequence of this parricide, and seemed to claim the crown by an hereditary right, without any regard to the senate or the people. His chief policy consisted in keeping the people always employed, either in wars or in public works, by which means he diverted their attention from the unlawful manner by which he obtained the crown, and from the tyrannical authority which he exercised. He kept a guard of foreign mercenaries, who were ready to execute his orders, however cruel and unjust. He reduced the Sabines to submission, and took from the Volsci Suessa Pometia, a considerable town, about twenty-six miles east of Rome; but in subduing the city of Gabi, he was obliged to have recourse to stratagem, a practice not usual with the Romans. Tarquin caused his son Sextus to counterfeit desertion, and to seek refuge in the town of Gabii, where he continued for some time. When Sextus believed his authority sufficiently established, he sent a confidential slave to his father, to explain to him the state of affairs, and to ask his advice. Tarquin made no reply; but taking the messenger into the garden, he cut down before his face

* From this circumstance, the Romans frequently designated their age by *lustra*, or so many periods of five years; thus, when Horace says, in one of his Odes, that he has passed his eighth *lustrum*, he means that he was more than forty years old.

the tallest poppies. Sextus readily understood the meaning of this action, and on plausible pretexts either destroyed or removed the principal men of the city, one by one, till, in the end, Gabii fell under the power of Tarquin.

Tarquin undertook to build the Capitol, the foundation of which had been laid in a former reign; but an extraordinary event contributed to hasten the execution of his design. A woman, in strange attire, introduced herself to Tarquin, and offered to sell nine books, which she said were composed by herself; but the king not knowing that she was one of the celebrated Sibyls, whose prophecies never failed, refused to buy them. She, therefore, departed, and burning three of the books, returned with the six, for which she asked the same price. Being once more despised as an impostor, she again departed, and burning the other three, returned with the remainder, still asking the same price as at first. The augurs advised the king to purchase the books; and the woman, having recommended the utmost care to be taken of them, suddenly disappeared. Tarquin chose proper persons to keep these books, which were deposited in a stone chest in the Capitol.

During the siege of Ardea by the Romans, Sextus, the king's son, and Collatinus, a noble Roman, with some others, sat drinking in a tent. They happened to discourse on the beauty and virtue of their wives, each man extolling his own with singular commendations. Collatinus offered to decide the dispute by putting it to an immediate trial, whose wife should be found possessed of the greatest beauty, and most sedulously employed at that very hour. Being heated with wine, this proposal was immediately agreed to; and, taking horse, they posted to Rome, where they found Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, spinning in the midst of her maids, and portioning out their tasks. They unanimously gave her the preference for beauty; and Sextus became so much inflamed with love, that nothing but enjoyment could satisfy his criminal passion. He, therefore, visited her privately a few days after, and finding means to convey himself into her chamber at midnight, threatened, that, if she would not comply with his desires, he would first kill her and his own slave, and then report that he had detected and slain them in the act of adultery.

In the morning, the ravisher returned to the camp; and

Lucretia, sending for her husband Collatinus, and for her father Spurius, informed them of the indelible disgrace which had befallen the family. She then stabbed herself with a poniard, and expired without a groan. Junius Brutus, who had waited for an opportunity of delivering his country from the tyranny of Tarquin, caused the body of Lucretia, to be exposed to the people, whose pity was soon changed into rage and ungovernable fury. The senate passed a decree, that Tarquin and his family should for ever be banished from Rome. Tarquin immediately flew to Rome; but finding the gates shut against him, he prepared to return to the camp. However, the same sentiments of humanity which had impelled the citizens, had also by this time affected the army, who refused to receive him. Thus the tyrant, with his family, was justly expelled his kingdom, and obliged to seek a precarious asylum at Circe, a town of Etruria; and with Tarquin ended the kingly government of Rome, after it had continued two hundred and forty-five years.

Questions on the History of Rome.

KINGS.

By what appellations was Italy anciently known, by what is it surrounded, and what are its extent and form? By what tribes or nations was this country inhabited? Where did the Ligurians inhabit? where the Venetians? where the Etruscans and the Umbrians? where the Sabines, the Latins, and the Volsci? What territory do Capua and Campania now form, and where inhabited the Marsi, the Samnites, and the Lucanians?

Where did Æneas arrive, and by whom was he received? What was the reward which Latinus conferred on him and his companions for his assistance against the Rutuli? What happened to Æneas after the death of his father-in-law, how did he sway the sceptre, and what did he establish? Whom did he engage, and what was the manner of his death?

By whom was Æneas succeeded, and what city did Ascanius found? Whither, and why, did the mother-in-law of Ascanius withdraw? Whom did Ascanius leave, and how was the sovereignty disposed of?

To whom did Procas bequeath the throne, by whom was it usurped, and to what did Amulius compel Rhea Sylvia? By whom was Rhea Sylvia violated, what were her offspring, and how were they preserved?

Whom did Romulus and Remus reinstate on the throne, where did they build a city, and what did Numitor assign them? By what was the death of Remus occasioned? What was the name of the city, where was it built, what houses or huts did it contain, and by what means was the number of inhabitants increased?

Whom did Romulus allow to choose their king, whom did they choose, and of what was he acknowledged chief? By whom was the king pre-

roded wherever he went, and for what purpose? In what did the whole power of the king consist?

Of whom was the senate composed, what was their office, and who appointed the first senator? What business was transacted in the city, and why were the senators called Fathers?

Who were the patricians, and what offices belonged to them? Who composed the third part of the legislature, and what were their power and duties? Whom had each plebeian a right to elect, and for what purpose? What were the duties of a client?

In what did the religion of that age consist, and what did Romulus ordain in respect to religion and the priests?

How did Romulus divide the people, into what were the tribes subdivided, and of what did these subdivisions consist?

What did the government only want, and how did Romulus attempt to supply this want? What means were afterwards employed, and how did those means succeed?

Who resolved to revenge this aggression, and how did the attempt terminate? By whom was the war between the Sabines and the Romans brought to an amicable conclusion, and on what terms was an agreement made? When was Tatius killed, and when was the equestrian order instituted?

What laws on marriage did Romulus add, and what was the power of fathers over their offspring?

What did Romulus attempt when elevated by success, and what was the consequence? What was the character of Romulus, and how is he to be regarded?

Who was the successor of Romulus, what was his character, and in what was he skilled?

What is chiefly observable in the reign of Numa Pompilius, and how did he spend his time? What did he build and institute, and how regulate his life? What particular temple did he build, and what was the nature of that temple? What offices did Numa institute and found, and what other acts did he perform?

On the death of Numa, who was elected king by the senate? Of what was Tullus Hostilius immoderately fond, what was the first war in which he was engaged, and how was it terminated? By what deed did the victorious youth of the Horatii tarnish his laurels?

What other acts did Hostilius perform, and when, and in what manner, did he die?

Who was next elected king by the people and the senate, what was his character, what actions did Ancus Martius perform, and when did he die?

Who was appointed guardian to the sons of the late king, and what name did he assume? Who was his father, and whom did his son Lucius marry? What induced the people to set aside the children of the late king, and to elect Lucius Tarquinius Priscus as their sovereign? What did he add to the institutions of Rome, and was he victorious in his wars?

What public works did Tarquin execute, what insignia did he assume, and what was the manner of his death?

By whom was Tarquin succeeded, and to whom was Servius Tullius indebted for the crown? After being acknowledged king, what was the first object of his care, and in what manner did he attempt to increase the power of the senate? What number of citizens capable of bearing arms did Rome now contain? Into what number of classes did Tullius divide the people? Whom did the first class comprise, and how was

this class subdivided? Of whom did the second class consist? Of whom the third, the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth classes, respectively? By whom was each century commanded? What was also ordained, and what authority did the plebeians possess?

What was the nature of the lustrum, and how did the Romans designate by it their age? What was the character of Tullus; what was his intention; and how, and when, and by whom, was his design frustrated?

After the assassination of Tullus, who placed himself on the throne, and under what authority? In what consisted the chief policy of Tarquin the Proud, and what guards did he keep? Whom did he reduce to submission, and what town did he take from the Volsci? What means did he employ to subdue, and get possession of, the town of Gabi?

When Tarquin undertook to build the Capitol, what extraordinary event took place? Where were the books of the Sybil deposited?

What happened during the siege of Ardea, and with what did Sextus, the son of Tarquin, threaten Lucretia?

What was the conduct of Lucretia the next morning, and what that of Junius Brutus? What decree did the senate pass, what was the conduct of Tarquin, and what were the sentiments of the army? Whither did Tarquin and his family retire, and when and with whom ended the kingly government of Rome?

CONSULS.

(B. C. 506, U. C. 242.) The regal government being thus overthrown,* it was agreed, that the centuries of the people should choose from the senators, instead of a king, two annual magistrates, whom they called consuls, and who were invested with power equal to that of the regal, the same privileges, and the same ensigns of authority. Brutus, the author of this revolution, and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were the first that were raised to the dignity of consuls in Rome. A party, however, was formed in the city in favour of Tarquin, and it was resolved by them that the king should be restored, and the consuls put to death. But a slave, named Vindicius, having accidentally hid himself in the room where the conspirators assembled, overheard their conversation, and laid open their designs to the consuls, who ordered them to be secured and brought to justice. Among the conspirators were found the sons of Brutus, and the Aquilii, the nephews of Collatinus. Brutus was obliged to sit as a judge upon the life and death of his

* The Tarquins seem to have been deservedly proscribed; but that the Romans should have abolished royalty, after all their obligations to it, can be accounted for only from the impulse thus given to the people, who, once set in motion, are apt to run into extremes, and often to their own ruin.

own children, impelled by justice to condemn, and by nature to spare. He, however, ordered them to be beheaded in his presence; and he beheld the cruel spectacle with a steady look and an unaltered countenance, while the multitude gazed on with all the mingled sensations of pity, wonder, and horror. The lenity of Collatinus rendering him suspected, he was deposed from the consulship, and banished Rome; and Valerius, afterwards surnamed Publicola, was chosen consul in his room.

Thus frustrated in the city, Tarquin prevailed on the Veians to assist him, and with a considerable army advanced towards Rome. The consuls met him on the Roman frontiers. Brutus and Aruns, the son of Tarquin, attacking each other with ungovernable fury, fell dead upon the field together. A bloody battle ensued, in which the Romans claimed the victory, and Valerius returned triumphant to Rome. Thus died Brutus, who, whatever praise he may deserve for emancipating his country from a tyrant, possessed none of those amiable qualities which engage our affections.

Valerius enacted several laws, which abridged the power of the senate, and extended that of the people. In particular, he ordained, that any citizen who had been condemned to death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, should be allowed to appeal to the people, and that their consent should be given previously to the execution of the sentence. Valerius was chosen consul a second time, and with him Titus Lucretius as his colleague.

In the mean time, Tarquin, having prevailed upon Porsenna, one of the kings of Etruria, to espouse his cause, this prince led a numerous army against Rome, to which he laid siege. A furious attack was made upon the place; the two consuls were carried off the field wounded; and the Romans flying in great consternation, were pursued by the enemy to the bridge, over which the victors and the vanquished were about to enter the city in mingled confusion. All now appeared to be lost, when Horatius Cocles opposed himself to the enemy, and, assisted only by two more, maintained the whole shock, till the bridge was broken down behind him. He then threw himself into the Tiber, and escaped by swimming. However, Porsenna carried on the siege with vigour, and the Romans were several times reduced to great extremity. But, at length, the

conduct of Tarquin estranged Porsenna for ever from him; and he retired from the Roman territory without exacting any conditions. Knowing also, that the Romans were in the greatest necessity, with equal generosity and delicacy, he ordered his soldiers to leave all the provisions in the camp.

Tarquin, though so often disappointed, was still unsubdued and unshaken; and the charms of royalty continued to maintain unabated dominion over his heart. He excited the Latins to espouse his interest, and took the most convenient opportunity, when the plebeians and senators were divided among themselves, to make head against Rome. Among the poorer classes of the people great complaints had arisen, on account of the inequality of property, the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the higher ranks generally contrived to engross to themselves, and of the harsh policy by which creditors could reduce their insolvent debtors to a state of slavery. There being no legal restraint on usury, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting debts, were entirely at the mercy of their creditors.

It is observable that the Romans, under their kings, had only two ways of subsisting---by agriculture and by plunder; they lived either by labouring on their own lands, or by reaping the harvests which had been sown by their enemies. However, soon after the expulsion of the Tarquins, the senators and patricians, who were in fact the sovereigns of Rome, appropriated to themselves the greatest part of the lands, which came by right of conquest, and gradually extended their own possessions at the expence of the public. In vain the soldier fought to enlarge the limits of the Roman dominions; the great monopolised the fruit of his labour. The poverty of the soldier obliged him to borrow money upon usury; and, as interest was exorbitant, this increased his wretchedness. Besides, the laws of Rome permitted the creditor to seize the person of the insolvent debtor, and to employ him as a slave till the debt was paid. Such a complication of misery soon excited the murmurs of the poor, who from entreaties proceeded to menaces.

When the consuls, therefore, began to levy men in order to oppose Tarquin, all the poor, and all who were burthened with debt, refused to enlist, declaring that those who enjoyed the advantages of peace might undergo the

fatigues of war, and insisting that their debts should be cancelled by a decree of the senate, as the only means of inducing them to take the field. In this exigence, the senate had recourse to an expedient, which, though successful on the present occasion, in a course of ages proved fatal to the republic of Rome. The consuls offered the people to elect a temporary magistrate, who should possess absolute power, not only over all ranks of the state, but even over the laws themselves. Accordingly, Titus Lartius was created the first dictator* of Rome (B. C. 495); and surrounded with his lictors, and all the ensigns of ancient royalty, he completed the levies without resistance. After concluding a truce with the Latins, he laid down the dictatorship before the expiration of six months, which was the time limited for this office.

However, the next year, circumstances required that there should be another dictator, and Posthumus was invested with that office. He gave the Latins a complete overthrow near the lake Regillus, in which Tarquin's three sons were slain. Tarquin himself was obliged to retire to the court of Aristodemus, in Campania, where he died at the advanced age of ninety years. The Latins once more implored a truce; and the dictator, after a triumph, laid down his authority.

The soldiers having returned triumphantly from the field, expected a remission of their debts; but, contrary to their hopes, the courts of justice were opened against them, and the prosecution of creditors revived with more than usual severity. This soon excited fresh murmurs. The senate chose Appius Claudius, a man of austere manners, a strict observer of the laws, and of unshaken intrepidity, for one of the consuls the ensuing year; but to temper his severity, they gave him for a colleague Servilius, who was of a humane and gentle disposition, and as much beloved by the populace, as Appius was the object of their aversion. When the complaints of the people were deliberated on,

* To be dictator, it was necessary to have been first consul. Though his office lasted only six months, yet during that time he was absolute master of the destinies of his country. He nominated to all public offices, assumed the command of the army, or bestowed it on the master or general of the cavalry, whom he nominated on his entrance into office. He was not responsible for any part of his conduct, after he retired from office. The only restrictions to which he was subject, were, that he was not permitted to leave Italy, and that he could not mount his horse without having first obtained the consent of the people!

Servilius wished that all debts might be abolished, or, at least, the interest on them diminished. Appius, on the other hand, insisted that lightening the load from those who owed money was only throwing it upon those to whom it was due; and that every new compliance from the senate, served no other purpose than to increase the insolent demands of the people.

The citizens, who were apprised of the discordant sentiments of their consuls respecting their complaints, loaded Servilius with marks of gratitude, while they every where pursued Appius with threats and imprecations. They again assembled, held secret cabals by night, and meditated some new revolution, when an unexpected spectacle of distress roused all their passions, and at once fanned their resentment into a flame.

A Roman soldier, who was decrepid and aged, and laden with chains, but who shewed in his air the marks of better days, sought an asylum in the midst of the people, as they were assembled on a public occasion. He was covered with rags; his face was pale, and wasted with famine; and his beard, which was long and neglected, and his hair in wild disorder, contributed to render his appearance still more ghastly, though interesting. Many who crowded around him, remembered that they had served with him in the war, or recollected that he was a brave and gallant man, whom they had frequently seen fighting in the foremost ranks of the legions. He addressed the people, and said, "I was born free; and I have fought in eight-and-twenty engagements. I served in the last war against the Sabines, in which my little patrimony was not only neglected, but the enemy plundered my substance, and set my house on fire. In this situation I was forced for subsistence to contract debts, and then obliged to sell my inheritance to discharge them; but not being able to pay the whole, my creditor took me and my two children to his own house, and delivered me over to his slaves, from whom, by his orders, I have suffered the most cruel treatment." Having concluded these words, he stripped himself, and shewed on his back the marks of recent stripes, which still continued bleeding, and on his breast scars of the honourable wounds which he had received in fighting for his country.

This account, and the sight of his wounds, which were still fresh, produced an instantaneous effect upon the people, who flew to take revenge not only on the delinquent,

but on the general body of their oppressors. Appius sought safety in flight. Servilius laid aside the marks of consular power, and throwing himself into the midst of the tumult, entreated, flattered, commanded them to patience; engaged that the senate should redress their wrongs; promised that he himself would maintain their cause; and, in the mean time, to convince them of the sincerity of his intention, made proclamation, that no citizen should be arrested for debt, till the senate should issue further directions.

The influence and the conciliatory conduct of Servilius, in some measure, appeased for this time the murmurs of the people; and the senate was on the point of beginning their deliberations, when word was brought that an army of Volscians was marching directly towards Rome. The populace had wished for such an event with the most ardent expectation, and now resolved that the nobles should see how little the power of the rich avails, when unsupported by the multitude. Accordingly, when the levy came to be made, the people unanimously refused to enlist; and those who had been imprisoned for debt, shewing their chains, insultingly asked, "Whether these were the weapons with which they were to face the enemy." However, Servilius, by promising them a plenary redress of their grievances after their return, prevailed on them to enroll themselves under his command. But Appius, still fierce and uncomplying, again authorised the creditors to renew their severity, and the debtors were dragged to prison and insulted as before. The Sabines, the Æqui, and the Volscians, made a fresh irruption; and the senate was obliged to create a dictator, who assured the people that their grievances should be redressed. But when the enemy had been defeated and subdued, Appius refused to comply, and brought over the majority of the senate to his opinion.

By these reiterated breaches of faith, the people were inflamed to a dangerous degree, and their military oath not allowing them to lay down their arms, or forsake their standards, they removed their ensigns, changed their commanders, and, under the conduct of a plebeian, named Sicinius Bellutus, retired to a mountain, thence called Mons Sacer, the Sacred Mountain, three miles from Rome. This resolute proceeding had the desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, at the head of whom were Lartius and Valerius, who had been dictators, and Menenius Agrippa, who was equally loved by the senate and the people. The

dignity and popularity of these ambassadors procured them a favourable reception among the soldiers, who readily listened to what they had to say. While Lartius and Valerius employed all their oratory on the one hand, Sicinius and Lucius Junius, who were the spokesmen of the soldiers, aggravated their distresses with all that masculine eloquence, which natural ability and the sense of injury fail not to inspire. The conference had continued for a long time, when Menenius Agrippa, a shrewd facetious man, who had been originally a plebeian, addressed to them that celebrated fable, which is so finely related by Livy. "In times of old," said he, "when every part of the body could think for itself, and each had a separate will of its own, they all, with common consent, resolved to revolt against the belly. They said, that they knew no reason why they should toil in its service, while, in the mean time, the belly lay at its ease, and indolently grew fat upon their labours. Accordingly, they agreed to support it no more. The feet vowed that they would carry it no longer; and the teeth averred, that they would not chew a morsel of meat, though it were placed between them. Thus determined, they for some time shewed their spirit, and kept their resolution. However, they soon became sensible, that, instead of mortifying the belly by these means, they only ruined themselves. They languished for a while, and perceived, when too late, that it was owing to the belly, that they had strength to work, or courage to mutiny."

This fable had an instantaneous effect upon the people, who unanimously cried out that Agrippa should lead them back to Rome; but Lucius Junius suggested, that though they were grateful for the kind offers of the senate, they had no safeguard against their future resentment, and that it was necessary to have certain officers created annually from themselves, who should have power to plead the cause of the community, and to redress the injured.

On this suggestion, for the security of their privileges in future, the senate agreed to allow them to choose magistrates of their own order, who should possess the power of opposing with effect, every measure which they deemed prejudicial to their interests. These were called *Tribunes of the People*,* who were chosen annually by the people, and generally from their own body, and who were at first

* The tribunes were to be exempt from all servile offices, and if any one killed a tribune, any person might put the murderer to death.

five, and afterwards ten, in number. Without guards or tribunal, and without any seat in the senate-house, they examined every decree, which they annulled by the word *Veto, I forbid it*, or which they confirmed by signing the letter *T*, that gave it validity. Their persons were declared sacred; and though they were not distinguished by any of the ensigns of office, such as the curule chair, or the lictors who attended upon other magistrates, yet their power was greatly superior, as they had a negative vote upon all decrees of the senate. Their authority, however, did not extend beyond the limits of a mile from Rome, from which they were not to be absent for a single day. One of their number could put a negative on the measures of the rest; and this was afterwards found the most effectual method of opposing them. This new office being thus instituted (B. C. 490, U. C. 258), the senate made an edict confirming the abolition of debts: and all things being adjusted on both sides, the people sacrificed to the gods of the Sacred Mountain, and returned to Rome in a triumphant manner.

Hitherto, we have seen the people struggling against the exorbitant power of the senate; but we shall now behold the senate contending against the increasing power of the people, who, after being put into motion, like a torrent, bore down all before them with irresistible violence. The first advantage of the tribunes was a permission to choose from the people two annual officers, as assistants in the fatigues of their duty, who were called *Ædiles*, from a part of their business consisting in taking care of the public buildings, aqueducts, and sewers. They were also to determine some causes, which had hitherto been subject to the cognizance of the consuls only; to notice those who held more land than the laws allowed them; to curb all immoralities, and abolish nuisances; to provide corn and oil in times of famine, and to prevent any monopolies.

Coriolanus, who was of a patrician family, and proud of rank and success, beheld with indignation the encroachments of the tribunes. Rome being threatened with a famine, an assembly was convened, in which the consuls and the tribunes by turns harangued the people; and a law was passed, that no one should dare to interrupt the tribunes while they spoke to the people. This law greatly increased the power of the tribunes, as now, from taking the instructions of the assembly, they were authorised to direct it. Soon after, Coriolanus insisted that the infringements which the people had made on the rights of the patricians

should be rectified, and the commonwealth restored to its former constitution. "Why," said he, "do we submit to see the state divided between two powers, whose dissensions serve only to harass it the more? Can we tamely bear to see tribunes give laws in Rome, and rule with uncontrolled power, when we could not stoop to kings? If the factious and turbulent are unwilling to live at Rome, let them retire once more to the Sacred Mountain; it is better not to govern, if we must share our command with the dregs of the people." This speech of Coriolanus, so inflammatory and violent, excited the resentment of the multitude; and the tribunes, without consulting the people, condemned him to be thrown from the Tarpeian rock, the usual punishment of traitors.

The ædiles were ordered to seize him; but the patricians surrounded and rescued him. Coriolanus, however, was summoned to appear before the assembly of the people, on a charge of aiming at sovereignty and tyranny. His graceful person, his manly eloquence, joined to the cries of those whom he had saved from the enemy, inclined the auditors to relent, and many of them declared, that so brave a man deserved a triumph, not death; but Decius, one of the tribunes, a man of fluent speech, urging against him, that instead of delivering into the public treasury, he had divided among his friends and followers, the plunder which he had taken in a late incursion into the territories of Antium, Coriolanus was unable to answer, and utterly confounded with the charge. In fact, when the people refused to enlist, Coriolanus had issued out at the head of his clients; and the spoils thus taken were divided among his followers. The people being divided by tribes, and ordered to give their votes separately, and not by centuries, he was condemned to perpetual exile.

After taking a lasting leave of his wife, his children, and his mother Veturia, Coriolanus left the city, attended by the senate to the very gates, to seek refuge among the enemies of Rome. Resolving to punish his enemies, even though he involved his country in ruin, he applied to Tullus Attius, a man of great power among the Volsci, and a violent enemy to the Romans. Tullus being informed of his name and business, stretched out his hand in token of amity, and instantly espoused his cause. The treaty between the Volscians and the Romans was soon after dissolved, and Tullus and Coriolanus were appointed generals of the former. Accordingly, they invaded the Roman

territories, ravaging and laying waste all the lands which belonged to the plebeians, but suffering those of the senators to remain untouched. Coriolanus took the towns one after another, and finding himself unopposed in the field, and at the head of a numerous army, he at length pitched his camp almost under the walls of Rome.

The people, seeing the enemy ravage their fields, begged peace with tears and supplications; but the senate, despising such meanness, resolved, if possible, not to betray the state to foreign enemies. Coriolanus approached nearer every day, and at last invested the city with a resolution of besieging it. The fierce spirit of the patricians was now entirely subdued; and both the senate and the people unanimously agreed to send deputies to him with proposals of restoration, provided he would draw off his army. Coriolanus, however, received them with great haughtiness, and, on the part of the Volsci, demanded whatever was mortifying to the Romans.

He informed them, with the utmost severity, that he was now general of the Volscians, whose interest he had only to consider, and that if they hoped for peace, they must restore all the towns which originally belonged to that people, and make them free of the city, as were the Latins. "As for myself," said he, "do you imagine that a mere recall will be a sufficient atonement for the insults which I have received, while it still remains in the power of such wretches as Sicinius and Decius to arm a vile populace against me? No! Rome, like a cruel step-mother, has heaped injuries and indignities upon a son, who had no other ambition than to sacrifice himself for her glory. She will now learn by what is to follow, whether the gods espouse her cause or mine.—Depart. I allow you thirty days, at the expiration of which time you shall see me once more before these walls, to receive your determination." He employed the intermediate space in taking several more towns from the Latins, and, according to his promise, returned, and again encamped his army before the walls of Rome.

By another embassy, he was conjured not to exact from his native city aught but what it became Romans to grant. Coriolanus, however, was inflexible, and allowed them only three days more, in which to finish their deliberations. This message filled the whole city with consternation; and in this exigence, another deputation, composed of the pon-

tiffs, the priests, and the augurs, was sent to the enemy's camp. They besought him by all that was sacred, by the respect which he owed to the gods, and by that which he might have for those who, being servants of the gods, were now at his feet, to give peace to his country. Coriolanus received them with due respect, but dismissed them without in the least relaxing in his demands. The people now began to consider the commonwealth as lost; and the temples were filled with old men, women, and children, who prayed for the preservation of their country. At length, it was suggested, that what could not be effected by the intercession of the senate, or the adjuration of the priests, might be brought about by the tears of his wife, or the importunities of his mother. Accordingly, at the request of a deputation, sanctioned by the senate, Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, was prevailed on to undertake the embassy, and was accompanied by many of the principal matrons of Rome, with Volumnia his wife, and his two children. Coriolanus resolved to give them a denial; but the rough soldier could not refrain from yielding to the feelings of nature, and sharing in the general distress. His mother, seeing him moved, seconded her words by the most persuasive eloquence of tears; his wife and children hung round him, and entreated protection and pity; and the train of matrons, prostrate on the ground, and, in all the agony of woe, deplored their own and their country's distress.

"Tell me, Coriolanus," said his mother, "how am I to consider this meeting? Do I embrace my son or my enemy? Am I your mother or your captive? Sorry am I to have lived to see this day—to see my son a banished man, and, what is still more distressing, to see him the enemy of his country. How has it been possible that he could turn his arms against the place which gave him life? how direct his rage against those walls which protect his wife, his children, and his gods? But it is to me only, that my country owes her oppressor; for had I never been a mother, Rome had still been free. The wretched consciousness of this will afflict me as long as life shall last, which cannot be long. However, though I am prepared for death, at least, let these wretched sufferers claim some share of your compassion, and think what will be their fate when to banishment they must add captivity."

At length, Coriolanus, struggling with a thousand *various* emotions, flew to raise Veturia, who had fallen at his

feet, and exclaimed, "O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but destroyed thy son!" The words were too prophetic. The lenity of Coriolanus to his country was not to be forgiven; and, in an insurrection of the people, he was slain by some assassins, whom Tullus had hired for that purpose. He was afterwards honourably buried; and the Roman matrons wore mourning for him a year. He was equally brave and prudent, disinterested and virtuous; and, had he lived in more propitious times, no general was better qualified to extend the limits of the Roman empire. A temple, dedicated to female fortune, was erected in the place where the women had delivered their country. The Volsci and the Hernici soon after suffered a signal defeat, in which Tullus their general was slain.

Spurius Cassius Viscellinus, a man naturally vain, and filled with ostentation, had the principal honour in obtaining this victory. Having been three times consul, and had two triumphs decreed by the senate, his pride was so much flattered, that he aspired to the regal power at Rome. For this purpose, he endeavoured to attach the conquered nations to his interest by the most indecent concessions. He restored to them a third part of what he had conquered; granted them the title of citizens of Rome; and treated them, in all respects, as he would have done a victorious army. To increase his popularity, he also proposed to distribute among the poor some lands which had been long in the possession of the rich, and which he asserted to be the property of the public. Thus, from the vanity and ambition of Cassius, sprang the famous Agrarian law, which afterwards proved the source of perpetual discord between the poor and the rich. By order of the senate, the questors ordered Cassius to appear before the assembly of the people, to answer to the charge of his designing to subvert the state, and raise himself to sovereign power. Accordingly, Cassius attended, and attempted to interest the people in his favour; but the tribunes being jealous of his popularity, and the senate incensed against him, he was condemned to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian rock, by those very people whose power and privileges he had endeavoured to extend.

Soon after the death of Cassius, the people became again urgent for the execution of the Agrarian law; but, though ten men, called *Decemviri*, were appointed to make the division of lands, the senate, by a common vo-

litical manœuvre, caused the consuls to prepare for an expedition against the *Æqui*. These dilatory arts continued nearly five years on the part of the senate, during which, as obstinate a spirit of clamour prevailed on that of the people. As the senators withheld their promise, the people refused to enlist; and, in this exigence, the family of the *Fabii**, with their vassals and clients, in number about four thousand, nobly offered to defend the Roman territories against the *Veii*. Of this noble family, all were cut off except one, who perpetuated the name of *Fabius*.

While the territories of Rome were enlarged by successive wars, her citizens also became more numerous; and, by an enumeration taken at this period, it was found that they amounted to one hundred and eleven thousand men capable of bearing arms, with treble that number of women, children, and slaves. Such an increase of people, without commerce, tended only to advance the disturbances of the city; and every year produced some new tumult between the contending orders of the state. The people, who had now become the electors of the magistrates, had neither skill nor integrity to fix upon competent persons; and scarcely did any consul lay down his office, but the multitude were ready to accuse his remissness and incapacity. *Menenius* the consul, who was accused of suffering the family of the *Fabii* to be cut off, was fined about five pounds of our money, a sum, which, though trifling in modern estimation, he was unable to pay. Refusing to accept the assistance of his friends, he, in detestation of the injustice and ingratitude of his fellow citizens, shut himself up in his own house, and starved himself to death.

The year following, the two preceding consuls, *Manlius* and *Fabius*, were in like manner cited by the tribunes to appear before the people; and the object invariably pursued was the *Agrarian* law, in putting off which they were accused of having made unjustifiable delays. The same perseverance on one side, and obstinacy on the other, again set the city in a ferment, and threatened destruction to one of the parties; but *Genutius* the tribune, the reviver of

* These illustrious victims to the defence of their country are worthy to be compared with the *Lacedæmonian* phalanx that fought and fell at *Thermopylæ*.

the law, being found dead in his bed without any marks of violence, this circumstance, which should have awakened the suspicions, alarmed the superstition of the people, who began to imagine that the gods were against their cause, and shewed symptoms of returning to their former obedience. In order to avail themselves of this favourable impression, the consuls began to make fresh levies, and continued to enrol the citizens with success, till they came to one Volero, a centurion, who refused to be enlisted as a private sentinel, and whom they ordered to be stripped and scourged. This impolitic severity rekindled the resentment of the populace, and afterwards produced a new cause of contention concerning the power of the consuls and the privileges of the people. The multitude rescued the prisoner, and drove off the magistrates; and, to complete the mortification of the latter, Volero was soon after created one of the tribunes of the people.

This turbulent demagogue resolved not only on carrying the Agrarian law, but upon enacting another, in which the people should give their votes by tribes, and not by curiæ, or centuries. This was another blow to the patrician power. When the people voted by curiæ, or centuries, the patricians were entire masters of the contest; but when by tribes, and every freeman of Rome, from whatever territory he came, was admitted to give a vote equal to that of the first senator, all influence was entirely lost. The senate, therefore, strongly opposed it; but the people warmly urging it, that venerable body was, at length, obliged to comply. It was then passed into a law, that from that time the tribunes should be elected, and the business discussed, by tribes. From this period, the supreme authority was vested in the hands of the people; and the Roman constitution was converted into a democracy.

Appius Claudius, the consul, son to the former Appius, was far from being disposed to concur in this new concession to popular importunity. When, therefore, the Volscians appeared in the field, the Romans immediately fled, and retaliated on the glory of Appius, their general (B. C. 469, U. C. 279). At length, however, Appius secured a part of his forces which yet remained under his command, and after ordering all the centurions, who had fled or quitted their ranks, to be scourged and beheaded, he caused every tenth man to be executed in the sight of his trembling companions. But the tribunes, vigorously

contending for the Agrarian law, and Appius opposing it, he was ordered to appear before the people, and finding them resolved on his condemnation, he prevented their malice by a voluntary death.

Soon after, the tribunes boldly asserted, that the people ought not only to have a share in the lands, but also in the government of the commonwealth, and that a code of written laws should be compiled, to mark out the bounds of their duty. This was violently opposed by the patricians, who, headed by Cæso, the son of Quintius Cincinnatus, drove them from the forum. Cæso was, therefore, summoned to appear before the people, but being admitted to bail, he fled into Etruria, and his father was obliged to sell almost the whole of his estate to re-imburse the sureties, and retire to a small farm and a little cottage beyond the Tiber.

In this state of commotion and universal disorder, Herdonius, a Sabine general, at the head of a company of Æqui and Volsci, obtained possession of the capitol, the citadel of Rome. The tribunes dissuaded the people from arming till the patricians should engage by oath to create ten men with a power of making laws, and suffer the people to share in all the benefits that should accrue. Valerius, the consul, then marched against the capitol, which he retook by storm, but fell in the assault. The tribunes insisted on the performance of the promise relative to the Agrarian law, and the surviving consul asserting that he could do nothing alone, the senate appointed Quintius Cincinnatus, the father of Cæso, to the vacant consulate. He accepted the dignity with regret, and observed to his wife on his departure, "My Racilia, I fear that for this year our little fields must remain uncultivated." He blamed equally the senate and the people; the latter for having asked, and the former for having granted too much. He quieted civil commotion, and administered justice with equity, mildness, and benevolence; and the senate and the people having mutually agreed, that their magistrates should not be continued in office longer than the year, he gave up the fasces, and returned to his farm.

From this tranquil retreat he was soon again drawn by a fresh exigence of the state. The Æqui and the Volsci having inclosed the consul Minutius in a defile, his army was in danger of perishing. The senate, therefore, unanimously turned their eyes upon Cincinnatus, and appointed him dictator. The messengers found him labouring in his

little field; and when he asked "What news do you bring from Rome?" they replied, "Rome, our country and yours, is in danger. She requires a dictator, and hath made choice of you." Cincinnatus heaved a sigh, and casting a look of sorrow on the oxen, the companions of his toils, departed for the city, near which he was met by the principal of the senate in their robes.

This dignity, which was unexpected and undesired, had no effect on the simplicity or the integrity of his manners. Though possessed of absolute power, and called upon to nominate his master of the horse, yet he chose a poor man named Tarquinius, who, like himself, despised riches when they led to dishonour. Tarquinius, though born of a patrician family, and of consummate bravery, had never been able to purchase a horse, and had, therefore, hitherto fought only as a foot soldier, being willing to serve his country even in the humblest situation. Thus the saving of a great nation devolved on a husbandman, taken from the plough, and on an obscure sentinel found among the dregs of the army.

The dictator, having entered the city, immediately made himself acquainted with the position of affairs, and, assuming a serene look, entreated all those who were able to bear arms, to repair, before sun-set, to the Campus Martius, the place where the levies were made, with necessary accoutrements, and provisions for five days. He then put himself at the head of the troops, and, marching all night with great expedition, arrived before day within sight of the enemy. Upon his approach, he ordered the soldiers to raise a loud shout, that the consul's army might be apprised of the relief that was at hand. The Æqui were astonished when they saw themselves between two enemies, and still more so when they perceived Cincinnatus making strong entrenchments beyond them, and inclosing them as they had inclosed the consul. To prevent this, a furious engagement ensued; and the Æqui being attacked on both sides, and unable to resist or fly, begged a cessation of arms, and offered the dictator his own terms. He granted them their lives, but obliged them, in token of servitude, to pass under the yoke; which was two spears set upright, and another across, in the form of a gallows, beneath which the vanquished were to march. He then addressed the army, which he had just delivered, as follows: "Soldiers of Minutius, who were so nearly becoming a

prey to your enemies, you shall not share their spoils; and you, consul, must first learn the art of war, as a lieutenant, before you command again as a general." This decision excited not a single murmur: on the contrary, the whole army united in presenting Cincinnatus with a crown of gold, for having saved the lives and honour of his fellow-citizens. Thus having rescued a Roman army, and defeated a powerful enemy, he resigned the dictatorship, after having enjoyed it only fourteen days. The senate would have enriched him, but he chose to retire once more to his farm and his cottage, content with temperance and the consciousness of native worth.

On the *Æqui* again marching into the field, the people demanded, that the number of the tribunes should be increased from five to ten. This some of the senate wished to oppose; but Cincinnatus assured them that it would be the most infallible means of debilitating that power which had so long controlled them. Accordingly, the senate readily came into his opinion, and granted the request as a matter of favour. Soon after, the tribunes uniting together, ventured, by their own authority, to order an assembling of the senate. They also required, that mount *Aventine*, which was as yet untenanted, should be given to the people to build on. The *Agrarian* law was also again agitated, and the audience were greatly prepossessed in favour of it by *Siccius Dentatus*, a brave and valiant plebeian.

This old soldier, who possessed an admirable person and a military deportment, and whose merits ennobled ostentation, came forward to enumerate his hardships, and scrupled not to extol the various achievements of his youth. He had served his country in the wars forty years, thirty of which he had been an officer; first a centurion, then a tribune. He had fought one hundred and twenty battles, in which, by the force of his single arm, he had saved a multitude of lives. He had gained fourteen civic, three mural, and eight golden crowns, besides eighty-three chains, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, and twenty-three horse-trappings, of which nine were for killing the enemy in single combat. Moreover, he had received forty-five wounds, all in front, and particularly twelve on the day the capitol was recovered from the enemy. Though such were his pretensions, yet he had never received any share of those lands which had been taken from the enemy. On the contrary, he con-

tinued to drag on a life of poverty and contempt, while others were possessed of those very territories which his valour had won, without any merit to deserve them, and without having contributed to the conquest in the slightest degree. This hard and lamentable case excited the indignation of the multitude, who unanimously demanded that the law might be passed, and that such merit should not go unrewarded. When, therefore, some of the senators rose up to speak against it, their voices were drowned by the cries of the populace; upon which, the young patricians running furiously into the throng, broke the balloting urns, dispersed the multitude that offered to oppose them, and, for the present, put off the Agrarian law, whose establishment had already been so oft agitated.

The approach of the *Æqui* within sixteen miles of the city, in some measure restored peace to the republic. In this war, *Siccius Dentatus*, the veteran who had harangued the people, gained greater honours than the consul who obtained the victory. Being ordered on a forlorn hope, to attack the enemy in a quarter where he knew they were inaccessible, he remonstrated against the danger and desperation of such an attempt; but being reproached by the consul with cowardice, he led on his body of eight hundred veterans to the place, and determined to give, by his death, a pattern of obedience, as he had in his life an example of resolution. However, fortunately perceiving a passage into the enemy's camp, which had not been indicated to him by the consul, he attacked the *Æqui* on one side, while the whole army amused them on the other, so that the Romans obtained a complete victory. *Dentatus* being conscious that he was sent on this dangerous service only to procure him death or infamy, had interest enough, upon his return, not only to prevent the consul from obtaining a triumph, and to get himself created a tribune, but also to procure a law for punishing such magistrates as should in future violate their authority, and for having both consuls fined for their behaviour to him in particular. Thus fortune, and the persevering zeal of the tribunes, conspired to diminish the patrician interest every year. All their honours were now fading fast away; and their very possessions, which were the fruits of hereditary planting, remained feebly in suspense, and the next popular breeze threatened to shake them to

the ground, and leave them to be divided according to merit, and not to birth.

(B. C. 451, U. C. 297.) The citizens of every rank now began to complain of the arbitrary decisions of the magistrates, and wished for a written body of laws, which might both prevent and punish wrongs. This idea was first started by Terentius* It was, therefore, agreed, that ambassadors should be sent to the Greek cities in Italy, and to Athens, to bring from thence such laws as by experience had been found most equitable and useful. For this purpose, three senators, Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, were fixed upon, and galleys assigned to convoy them, in a style suitable to the majesty of the Roman people. When the ambassadors returned, they brought home a body of laws, collected from the most civilized states of Greece and Italy, which being afterwards formed into ten tables, and two more being added, constituted that celebrated code, called the laws of the Twelve Tables, many fragments of which remain to this day, and are recognised in different nations of Europe.

But on this important topic it may be necessary to enlarge. The ambassadors were no sooner returned, than the tribunes required, that a body of men should be chosen, who might digest the collected laws into proper form, and give weight to their execution. After long debates whether this election should not be partly made from the people as well as from the patricians, it was at length agreed, that ten of the principal senators should be elected. The persons chosen were Appius and Genutius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romulus, former consuls; with Julius, Veturius, and Horatius, senators of the first distinction. The whole constitution of the state was at once to assume a new form, and a dreadful experiment was going to be tried, of governing one nation by laws taken from the manners and customs of another, totally different in its genius and polity.

It was decreed, that the power of the decemviri should continue for a year, and be equal to that of kings and consuls, and that without any appeal; that all other magistrates should lay down their offices, till the laws

* Hence it was called the Terentian law, and for a time excited as much public attention as the Agrarian law had ever done. The laws of Solon formed the basis of this system.

directed proper substitutes; and that the new legislators should, in the mean time, exercise their authority with all the ensigns of the former, but now discontinued power. The decemviri agreed to take the reins of government by turns; that each should dispense justice for a day; that he alone, who was in the actual exercise of power, should be attended with the ensigns of it; and that each of the rest should be preceded only by a petty officer, called *Accensus*, to distinguish him from the vulgar. After labouring for a year, they formed a body of laws, which were comprised in ten tables, and after being engraven on plates of brass, were hung up in the most conspicuous part of the forum.

Under pretence that some laws were still wanting to complete their design, they entreated the senate for a continuance of their appointment; to which that body consented. Appius procured himself to be renominated, and composed the college of the decemviri of persons devoted to him. They then made solemn vows never to dissent from each other; never to give up their authority; and not to resort to the opinions either of the senate or the people, except in cases of absolute necessity. Instead only of one of them being attended by his rods and axes, each appeared with these ensigns of terror and authority. Instead of magistrates, mild, just, and affable, they became monsters of rapine, licentiousness, and cruelty. The forms of justice were converted into an engine to put many of the citizens to death, and deprive others of their country and estates. But that they might convince the people, that they were not unmindful of their delegated trust, they added two tables more of laws, which altogether formed, as we have before said, that celebrated code, known by the name of the **TWELVE TABLES**.

In these last was introduced a law, which prohibited all marriages between the patricians and the plebeians, and by which the framers hoped to widen the breach between the two orders, and thus avail themselves of their mutual animosity. But though the people easily saw through their designs, they bore them with patience, as the time of the expiration of their office was at hand, when it was expected that they would quietly lay down their usurped authority. However, regardless of the approbation either of the senate or the people, they continued themselves, contrary to all precedent, and against

all order, another year in the decemvirate. This tyrannical conduct occasioned new discontents, which produced fresh acts of tyranny to silence them. The city was become almost a desert, with respect to those who had any thing to lose; and the rapacity of the decemviri was then only abated, when they wanted fresh objects for its exercise. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not a single citizen had the courage to strike for his country's freedom; and the tyrants continued to rule without control, being constantly guarded, not by their hectors alone, but by a numerous crowd of dependants, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had confederated around them; while the virtuous and the patriotic were constrained by fear even from venting their complaints.

The Æqui and the Volsci, in hopes of profiting by the intestine divisions of the people, took advantage of the gloomy situation of the state, renewed their incursions, and advanced within about ten miles of Rome. The decemviri, who had no authority to raise an army themselves, felt great reluctance in asking aid from the senate, whose deliberations had been long suspended, but whom they were obliged to convene. Appius, in a premeditated speech, propounded the business for which they were assembled, and desired that each should speak his sentiments as he was called upon. Valerius, the son of Publicola, rising out of his turn, was ordered to sit down; but he refused to obey, and violently inveighed against the tyranny of the decemvirate, and their effrontery, in expecting that the senate, whose power they had destroyed, should now take measures to support their betrayers. He was seconded by Marcus Horatius, who, with still greater freedom, exposed their horrid invasion of the rights of their country, their outrages, their rapines, and their cruelties. Appius, whose passions had been long used to indulgence, became extremely violent, raged against his opposers, and threatened to cause Horatius to be hurled from the Tarpeian rock. This indignity roused the whole body of senators, who exclaimed against the decemvir's infringement of the liberty of free debate, as the highest breach of their privileges, and an intolerable act of power; but who, on the apology of Appius, passed a decree which conferred on him and his colleagues the power of levying and commanding the forces destined to repel the Æqui.

The conscript fathers being reduced to the humiliating situation of granting a forced sanction to tyranny, were immediately dismissed. One part of the army was retained by Appius in the city, to keep it in awe; the other two were led, one against the *Æqui*, the other against the *Volsci*.

The Roman soldiers had lately adopted an ingenious and effectual method of punishing the generals whom they disliked, by suffering themselves to be vanquished in the field. This practice they used on this occasion, and abandoned their camp on the approach of the enemy. The tidings of this defeat were received at Rome with greater joy than ever was the news of a victory. The generals were blamed for the treachery of their men: some demanded that they should be deposed; and others cried out for a dictator to lead the troops to conquest.

Siccus Dentatus, the tribune, having spoken his sentiments with his usual candour and frankness, was marked out by Appius for vengeance. Being appointed legate, he was put at the head of the supplies sent from Rome to reinforce the army. He was then dispatched at the head of a hundred men to examine a more commodious place for encampment; but the soldiers who accompanied him, were assassins, whom the *decemviri* had engaged to murder him. They attacked him in the hollow bosom of a retired mountain. The brave veteran, placing his back against a rock, killed no less than fifteen of the assailants, and wounded thirty with his own hand; but the villains at length succeeded, by ascending the rock, and pouring down stones upon him from above. The *decemviri* pretended to join in the general sorrow for so brave a man, and decreed him a funeral, with the first military honours; but the greatness of their apparent distress, compared with their known hatred, only rendered them still more detestable to the people.

Appius, sitting one day on his tribunal to dispense justice, was smitten with the charms of a very young maiden of exquisite beauty, passing to one of the public schools, and attended by her nurse. Her name was *Virginia*: she was the daughter of *Virginus*, a centurion, then with the army, and had been contracted to *Leilius*, formerly a tribune of the people. After trying in vain to corrupt the fidelity of her nurse, Appius prevailed upon a man called *Claudius*, who had long been the minister of

his pleasures, to assert that the beautiful maid was the daughter of one of his female slaves, and to refer the cause to his own tribunal for decision.

Claudius conducted himself according to his instructions, and, entering into the school where Virginia was placed among her female companions, he seized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, had he not been prevented by the people, who were drawn together by her cries. At length, however, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, where he plausibly supported his pretensions, by asserting that she was born in his house, of a female slave, and sold by her to the wife of Virginius, who had been barren. He concluded by observing that he had several credible witnesses to prove the truth of what he said, but that, till they could be summoned, it was only reasonable that the slave should be delivered into his custody as her proper master.

The vile decemvir affected to be struck with the justice of his claims, and adjudged her to Claudius, as his slave, to be kept by him till Virginius should be able to prove his paternity. The multitude received this sentence with loud murmurs and reproaches; the women surrounded the innocent Virginia, as if willing to protect her from the fury of the judge; and Icilius, her lover, boldly opposed the decree, and obliged Claudius to take refuge under the tribunal of the decemvir, for whom he was pandering.

Appius, therefore, found it necessary to suspend his judgment till the arrival of Virginius from the army, at a small distance from Rome. In the mean time, Appius endeavoured to prevent the return of Virginius from the army the next day, which was appointed for the decision, by sending letters to the generals to confine him. However, Virginius, who had received information of the affair, flew to Rome, and appeared before the tribunal, to the astonishment of Appius. Claudius and Virginius having urged the arguments which they had to advance, Appius decreed in favour of the former, and adjudged Virginia to be the property of Claudius, the plaintiff. Virginius, therefore, mildly entreated permission to take a last farewell of one whom he had long considered as his child.

With this request the decemvir complied, on condition that their endearments should pass in his presence. With the most poignant anguish, Virginius took his almost ex-

piring daughter in his arms, for awhile supported her head upon his breast, and wiped away the tears that rolled down her lovely face. But his fatal resolution was taken; and the endearments of love were lost in the sense of honour. Happening to be near the shops that surrounded the forum, he snatched up a knife which lay on the shambles, and, addressing his daughter, said, "My dearest lost child, this alone can preserve your honour and your freedom." He then plunged the weapon to her heart, and, holding up the bloody knife, cried, "Appius, by the blood of this innocent, I devote thy head to the infernal gods." So saying he ran through the city, calling on the people to strike for freedom; thence he went to the camp, to spread a like flame through the army.

Virginus, having rejoined the troops, implored the soldiers, by that blood which was dearer to him than his own, to redeem their sinking country. The army, already predisposed, immediately with shouts echoed their assent, and, leaving their generals behind, once more took their station upon Mount Aventine. They then chose other commanders; and hence originated the military tribunes, who, in the sequel, held a relative rank with the generals in the army. In the mean time, Appius exerted all his influence to quell the disturbance in the city; but finding the tumult incapable of being controlled, he ventured to assemble the senate, and urged the punishment to be inflicted against deserters. The senate, however, refused the relief which he sought. Foreseeing the dangers and miseries that threatened the state, in case the incensed army was opposed, they dispatched messengers to them, and offered to restore the former mode of government, by consuls and tribunes; and the people and the army joyfully assenting to this proposal, the decemvirate was abolished (B. C. 448, U. C. 300.) The people being thus delivered from a tyrannical yoke, which they had imposed on themselves, Valerius and Horatius were elected consuls, and Virginus and Icilius received into the number of the tribunes. Appius, and Oppius, one of his colleagues, died in prison by their own hands. The other eight went into voluntary exile; and Claudius was banished.

Thus the vengeance of the tribunes pursued these devoted men to the utmost; and they were preparing to exceed in acts of oppression those whom they had deposed.

for cruelty. The senate began to tremble at seeing so many of their number menaced with destruction; but their fears were quieted by Duilius, one of the tribunes, who was more moderate than the rest of his colleagues, and who openly professed that no more blood should be shed on this occasion, that sufficient vengeance had been taken for the death of Virginia, and that he interdicted all future prosecutions on that account.

However, the two new consuls, who seemed entirely to have abandoned the interests of the patricians, and to study only the gratification of the people, procured the ratification of a law, by which each of the plebeians should, in his individual capacity, have as much influence in all elections and deliberations whatever, as any one of the patricians. This law, which was extremely injurious to the power of the senate, gave the finishing blow to all distinction between the patricians and the people. The two orders of the state continued for some years mutually to oppose each other; the patricians defending the small shadow of distinction which was left them, and the people daily insisting on fresh concessions. In short, the creation and abolition of the *decemviri* gave a shock to the republic, which, for more than fifty years, caused the government to vibrate, and prevented it from becoming stationary.

These intestine tumults produced weakness within the state, and confidence in the enemy abroad. The war with the *Æqui* and the *Volsci* still continued; and they at last advanced so far, as to make their incursions to the very walls of Rome. The justice, as well as the courage of the Romans, seemed also sensibly diminished. The inhabitants of *Ardea* and *Aricia*, having a contest between themselves respecting some lands, which had been long claimed by both, agreed to refer the matter to the senate and the people of Rome. The senate, indeed, refused to determine the dispute; but the people readily undertook the decision, and one *Scaptius*, an old man, declaring that these very lands of right belonged to Rome, they immediately voted themselves to be the legal possessors, and sent home the former litigants, thoroughly convinced of their own folly, and of the Roman injustice.

The tribunes also grew more and more turbulent; and having now obtained a principal share in the administration of some departments of government, they proposed two

laws, in violation of the sanctions of the Twelve Tables; one to permit plebeians to intermarry with patricians; the other, to allow them to be admitted also to the consulship. The senate was obliged to concede to the first, but absolutely refused to pass the law relative to the consulship. At length it was agreed, that six governors should be annually chosen, with consular authority, three from the senate, and three from the people (B. C. 443). The new magistrates were denominated Military Tribunes; they were at first three, afterwards they were increased to four, and at length to six. They possessed the power and the ensigns of consuls; but their authority being divided among a number, each singly was of less consequence. This institution, however, was in a short time laid aside; and the consuls once more came into office.

To assist the consuls, a new office was created, namely, that of Censor, to be chosen every fifth year. Their business consisted in estimating the number and estates of the people, and distributing them into their proper classes; in inspecting the lives and manners of their fellow-citizens; in cashiering senators for misconduct; in dismounting knights, and degrading plebeians, in case of misdemeanour. The first two censors were both patricians, and from this order they continued to be elected for nearly one hundred years.

The people being greatly distressed by a famine, Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, had monopolized all the corn of Tuscany, which he distributed every day among the poorer citizens with the utmost liberality. Having thus seduced a sufficient number of partisans, and corrupted some of the tribunes, he formed a conspiracy for usurping the sovereignty of his country. This, however, being discovered to the senate, Cincinnatus, who was now eighty years old, but who still possessed all the intrepid courage of youth, was once more chosen dictator to rescue his country from impending danger; which he accomplished with his usual felicity.

Factions still became stronger, and the government weaker; the tribunes of the people continuing to augment the breach between the orders of the commonwealth, and calling their licentiousness liberty.* At length, the

* During these commotions, the Roman army first embued their hands in the blood of their general, to whom they had hitherto, in all changes, shewn a high degree of personal respect. The victim, to whom we allude, was Posthumius.

senate hit upon an expedient, which served greatly to extend their own power, and at the same time was highly pleasing to the people. The citizens, who went to the field, had hitherto fought the battles of their country without pay; in fact, they were husbandmen, and not soldiers, being obliged to furnish not only their own arms, but their own provisions, during the campaign. Hence they incurred debts, and hence proceeded that various train of extortions, usuries, and petty cruelties, which the creditors made use of to oppress their debtors. To remedy, or rather to mitigate these evils, the senate unanimously resolved to pay the soldiery out of the treasury; and for this purpose they imposed a new tax, from which none of the citizens were to be exempted. This regulation gave a new turn, in some measure, to the Roman mode of warfare; incursions now became regularly protracted campaigns. Sure of their reward, the people gladly offered to enlist, and follow the conscript fathers wherever they should lead them. The soldiers, indeed, became more supple and more submissive; but they lost much of their patriotism and independence.

(B. C. 408.) The senate, thus reconciled to the people, and become masters of an army that they could keep in the field as long as they thought proper, resolved to take signal vengeance on the Veians, and besiege their capital city. The Veians had long been the rivals of the Romans, and having taken every opportunity of ravaging the Roman territories, and maltreating their ambassadors, it was determined that Veii should fall. However, the siege lasted ten years. Unceasing dissension among the Romans, and so much obstinacy on the part of the Veii, induced the senate to create Furius Camillus dictator, to whom was entrusted the sole power of conducting the long-protracted war. He overthrew the Falisci and the Capenates, and finding himself master of the field, directed all his force to the vigorous prosecution of the siege of Veii. He secretly wrought a mine, which opened into the midst of the citadel, and filled the city with his legions, to the amazement and confusion of the besieged, who, the moment before, had reposed in perfect security. Camillus having subdued the rival of his native city, triumphed after the manner of the kings of Rome, and had his chariot drawn by four milk-white steeds. This splendid ostentation disgusted the ma-

jority of the spectators, and gave them an unfavourable impression of the general's moderation.

Afterwards, Camillus routed the Falisci, and besieged their capital city Falerii. A schoolmaster, intrusted with the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the place, led them to the camp, and offered to put them into the hands of Camillus, as the surest means of inducing the citizens to a speedy surrender.

"With these," said the unprincipled tutor, "I deliver you the town, and prefer the friendship of the Romans to the office which I hold in Falerii." Struck with the treachery of a wretch, whose duty it was to protect innocence, the general for some time regarded him with a stern air, but at length indignantly exclaimed, "Execrable villain, offer thy abominable proposals to creatures like thyself, and not to me. Though we are the enemies of your city, yet there are natural ties which bind all mankind, and which should never be broken. There are duties required from us in war, as well as in peace: we fight not against an age of innocence, but against men, who, indeed, have used us ill, but those crimes are virtues when compared to thine. Against such base arts, it shall be my duty to use only Roman arts, the arts of valour and of arms."

So saying he caused him to be stripped and bound, and in that ignominious manner whipped into the town by his own scholars. This generous behaviour induced the magistrates to submit to the senate, and the Falisci were received and treated as allies of Rome. But though the virtues of Camillus had excited veneration abroad, he was accused at home by the turbulent tribunes of having concealed a part of the plunder of Veii: and being ordered to appear before the people, he resolved not to submit to the ignominy of a trial, and retired to Ardea, a town at a little distance from Rome, where he afterwards learned that he had been fined fifteen hundred asses, by the tribunes at Rome.

The Gauls, a barbarous nation, had, two centuries before, passed the Alps, and settled in the northern provinces of Italy. They had been allured from their native country by the deliciousness of the wines, and the softness of the climate. Wherever they came, they dispossessed the original inhabitants. They were men of superior courage, extraordinary stature, wild in their aspect, ferocious in their

manners, and prone to change. Those already in Italy invited others from their native habitations, and a body of these, under the conduct of Brennus, their king, at this time besieged Clusium, a city of Etruria. The Clusians, frightened at their numbers, and still more at their savage appearance, entreated the assistance of the Romans, who sent ambassadors to Brennus. The ambassadors, however, heading the citizens in a sally against the besiegers, Brennus was so enraged, that he immediately broke up the siege of Clusium, and marched his conquering army to attack Rome herself.

The Romans and Gauls met near the river Allia, eleven miles from the city. The two armies were alike confident of victory, and disdaining to survive defeat. However, the centre of the Roman army, unable to withstand the impetuosity of the enemy's charge, soon gave way; and the wings being divided from each other, a rout ensued, in which the Romans seemed to have lost the power, not only of resistance, but of flight. Confusion and terror reigned throughout their broken ranks, and few of them returned to Rome with the dreadful intelligence of this overthrow. All hopes of resistance being now over, the remaining inhabitants able to bear arms, threw themselves into the capitol; and the rest resolved to hide themselves in some of the neighbouring towns. The ancient senators and priests, struck with a religious enthusiasm on this occasion, determined to devote their lives to atone for the crimes of the people, and habited in their robes of ceremony, placed themselves in the forum, on their ivory chairs.

(B. C. 383, U. C. 365.) On the third day after the victory, Brennus appeared before the city, and was surprised to find the gates wide open, and the walls defenceless. After proper precautions, he entered Rome, and beheld the ancient senators, who observed a profound silence, unmoved and undaunted. The splendid habits, the majestic gravity, and the venerable looks of these old men, who had all borne the highest offices of the state, awed the barbarous enemy into reverence. The Gauls considered them as gods, and worshipped them; but one venturing to stroke the beard of Papyrius, the noble Roman struck him to the ground with his ivory sceptre. This seemed as a signal for a general slaughter; and all of them fell without mercy or distinction. In as short time, every house was

reduced to a heap of ashes, and Rome became nearly a waste.

The siege of the capitol had continued for above six months, the provisions of the garrison were almost exhausted, their numbers lessened with continual fatigue, and nothing seemed to remain but death, or submission to the mercy of the conquerors, which was dreaded more than even death itself; in short, they had resolved on dying, when they were revived from their despondence by the appearance of a man, who climbed up the rock, and whom they knew, upon his arrival, to be a messenger from their friends without. This person's name was Pontius Comminus, a young plebeian, who had swum across the Tiber by night, passed through the enemy's guards, and with extreme fatigue climbed up the capitoline rock. He brought tidings to the besieged, that Camillus, their expatriated dictator, was levying an army for their relief; that the citizens of Ardea and of Ven had armed in his favour, and made him their general; and that he waited only his country's confirmation of their choice, to enter the field and give the barbarians battle.

The Romans were struck with a mixture of rapture and astonishment, to find that the man whom they had injuriously spurned from the city, was now, in its desperate state, ready to become its defender. With an enthusiasm which his virtues deserved, they instantly chose him for their dictator, and prepared to sustain the siege with recruited vigour. The messenger, after receiving his answer and proper instructions, had the good fortune to return to Camillus, though not without encountering a variety of perils.

Brennus tried every art to reduce the citadel, and hoped speedily to starve them into a capitulation; but, in order to convince him of the futility of his expectations, though in actual want, they caused several loaves to be thrown into his camp. Brennus then attempted to scale and surprise the capitol; but the garrison being awakened by the cackling of some sacred geese kept in the temple of Juno, the enemy were thrown headlong from the walls. At length, it was agreed, that the invaders should immediately quit the city and territories of Rome, on being paid a thousand pounds weight of gold. The Gauls, however, attempted fraudulently to kick the beam on weighing the gold; of which the Romans complaining, Brennus ir

sultingly cast his sword and belt into the scale, saying, that the only portion of the vanquished was to suffer. At this very juncture arrived Camillus, at the head of a large army destined to relieve the citadel. Camillus, being informed of the dispute, ordered the gold to be taken and carried back to the capitol, and added that the manner of the Romans was, to ransom their country with iron, and not with gold. A battle ensued, in which Brennus and his followers were so completely defeated, that the Gauls soon wholly disappeared from Italy.

Rome, however, continued a heap of ruins; and no part of its former magnificence remained, except the capitol. The greatest number of its former inhabitants had sought refuge in Ven; and the tribunes of the people once more urged for the removal of the poor remains of Rome to Ven, where they might have houses to shelter, and walls to defend them. But Camillus attempted to appease them with all the arts of persuasion, and observed, that it was unworthy of them, both as Romans and as men, to desert the venerable seats of their ancestors, where they had been encouraged by repeated marks of divine approbation, and remove to and inhabit a city, which they themselves had conquered, and which wanted even the good fortune of defending itself. By these and similar arguments, he prevailed on the people to relinquish the design of abandoning Rome, and to set about rebuilding its ruined edifices. Like a phoenix, it quickly sprung from its ashes, though with diminished beauty and regularity.

The bravery of Manlius in defending the capitol when the Gauls attempted to scale the walls, was rewarded by the people, who built him a house near the place where his valour had been so conspicuous, and appointed him a public fund for his support. But his ambition was far from being satisfied, and, aspiring to the sovereignty of Rome, he endeavoured to ingratiate himself with the populace, by paying their debts, and railing at the other patricians. His designs being known to the senate, they created Cornelius Cossus dictator, who, after defeating the Volscians, imprisoned Manlius for his conduct at home. However, Cossus was obliged to lay down his office, and Manlius was carried by the populace from confinement, in triumph through the city. He now began to talk of a division of the lands among the people; to insinuate that there should be no distinctions in the state; and

always to appear at the head of a large body of the dregs of the people, whom his largesses had made his followers. Camillus, being elected one of the military tribunes, appointed Manlius a day to answer for his life. However, on being accused of sedition and of aspiring to the sovereignty, Manlius only turned his eyes upon the capitol, and pointing thither, put the people in mind of his achievement upon that spot. The multitude instantly refused to co-operate with his accusers, but when he was brought to the Peteline grove, at a distance from the capitol, they condemned him to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian rock. His house was razed to the ground; and his family were forbidden to assume the name of Manlius.

Camillus being chosen military tribune a sixth time, he and Lucius Furius, his colleague, marched against the Volscians. The latter being a young man eager to engage the enemy, ascribed the backwardness of Camillus for an attack, to the timidity of old age, or to the envy of a man unwilling to admit a partner in his fame. Furius, therefore, seized the opportunity of leading on his forces to battle when Camillus was sick and obliged to keep his bed. Too soon, however, he perceived the temerity of his own conduct, and the wisdom of Camillus's advice. His army was almost defeated, and an universal flight was about to ensue, when the veteran general roused from his bed, and being helped on horseback, old and infirm as he was, put himself at the head of a small body of men, opposed those who fled, and brought them furiously up against their pursuers. "Is this," said he, "the victory which you promised yourselves? There is no shelter for you here. Return!" The soldiers quickly rallied round their general, under whom they had so often fought victoriously, and whom they considered as invincible. The enemy were repulsed; and the combat being renewed the next day, they were totally defeated. Soon after, Camillus returned to Rome laden with the spoils of conquest; but no successes abroad could allay the dissensions at home.

The youngest daughter of Fabius Ambustus, being married to a plebeian, envied the honours of her elder sister, who was the wife of a patrician. She, therefore, prevailed on her father to excite the people to assert their equal right with the patricians to the consulate. The law for creating a plebeian consul being agitated, the senate strongly

opposed it, and forbade Camillus, who was at that time dictator, to lay down his office. But while Camillus was dispatching public affairs, the tribunes ordered that the votes of the people should be taken on their favourite measure; and the dictator vehemently opposing it, they sent a lictor to arrest him, and conduct him to prison. Such a mark of indignity raised a greater commotion than had yet been seen in Rome; and the patricians boldly repulsed the lictors, while the people cried out, "Down with him! down with him!" By the advice of Camillus, who vowed to build a temple to Concord, in case peace was restored, a law was passed, that, in future, one of the consuls should be chosen from the plebeians (B. C. 352, U. C. 396). At the same time, also, they created from the patricians a prætor*, who supplied the place of the consul in his absence, and administered justice to the people in civil and criminal causes. The number of prætors, in after ages, was increased to sixteen. There were likewise two curule ædiles created, who had the care of the public games, and of the corn and provisions taken in war.

Camillus, after resigning the dictatorship, and building a temple to Concord, according to his vow, died of the plague, in the eighty-second year of his age, with the reputation of being the second founder of Rome. He never gave a battle which was not followed by a complete victory; besieged a town without taking it; nor led forth an army, which he did not bring back laden with spoils, and covered with glory. He often owed his success as much to his personal courage as to the valour of his soldiers.

A gulf having opened in the forum, which the augurs affirmed would never close up till the most precious things in Rome were thrown into it. Curtius leaped with his horse and armour boldly into the midst of it, saying that nothing was more truly valuable than patriotism and military virtue. Historians assert, that the gulf immediately closed, and that Curtius was never after seen.

(B. C. 328, U. C. 420.) The Romans having now triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the Æqui, the Volscians, and other petty nations, within a moderate distance, they turned their arms

* At this first appointment of prætor, he was considered as the second magistrate of the republic; but his power was lessened, when he participated it with several.

against the Samnites, a people one hundred miles east from Rome.

The Samnites were a hardy and powerful nation, descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of southern Italy, which at this day constitutes a considerable part of the kingdom of Naples. They were equally powerful in numbers and discipline with the Romans; and, like them, had confederated states in their train. Two such powerful neighbours, who were both fond of arms and inured to war, could not long want a pretext for a rupture. The Samnites had oppressed the Sidicini, who, being too weak to manage the war alone, called in the Campanians to their assistance; and they also being overthrown, implored the assistance of the Romans.

Valerius, who was surnamed Corvus, from having been assisted by a crow in a single combat with a Gaul of gigantic stature, whom he defeated and killed, and who was consul, was sent to relieve Capua, the capital of the Campanians, which was besieged by the Samnites. At the same time, Cornelius, his colleague, marched with an army against Samnium, the enemy's capital. The fortune of Rome prevailed; and the Samnites fled, averring that they were unable to withstand the fierce looks and fiery eyes of the Romans. Capua received a Roman garrison, which revolted against Rome; but, at length, by the prudence and moderation of Corvus, who was created dictator, the soldiers were brought to a sense of their duty.

The Romans deemed it advisable to conclude with the Samnites a treaty of peace, the terms of which were so offensive to the Latins and the Campanians, as to induce them to revolt. The two consuls, Manlius Torquatus and Decius Mus, were sent to chastise the Latins, who insisted that one of the consuls, and half the senate, should be chosen out of their body, before they would submit to an accommodation with Rome. The two armies met, and engaged for some time with doubtful success; but, at length, the wing commanded by Decius being repulsed, the general resolved to devote himself to his country, and offer his own life as an atonement to save his army. The Roman troops considered this as an assurance of success; and the Latins were not less powerfully influenced by his resolution. The Romans pressed them on every side, and so great was the carnage, that few of the enemy

survived the defeat*. (B. C. 323.) Two years after, *Prædum*, their strongest city, was taken, and they were brought into an entire submission to the Romans.

It may be proper to observe, that in the preceding battle the strict discipline of the Romans, and their amazing patriotism, were displayed in a manner that has excited the wonder, rather than the applause of posterity. The Latins and the Romans being a neighbouring people, their habits, arms, and language were the same, and the most exact discipline was necessary to prevent confusion in the engagement. *Manlius*, the consul, therefore, issued orders, that no soldier should leave the ranks upon any provocation, and that he who should offer to violate this injunction, should certainly be put to death. When both armies were drawn out, and ready to engage, *Metius*, the general of the enemy's cavalry, pushed forward from his lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman army to single combat. For some time there was a general pause, and no one offered to disobey his orders; but, at length, *Titus Manlius*, the consul's son, ashamed to see the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly advanced against *Metius*. The soldiers, on each side, suspended the general engagement, that they might be spectators of this fierce encounter. The two champions attacked each other with the greatest spirit and bravery; but, at length, the Roman laid his antagonist dead at his feet. He then despoiled him of his armour, and returned in triumph to the tent of the consul his father.

"My father," said the generous youth with a modest hesitation, "I have followed your heroic example. A Latin warrior challenged me to single combat, and I bring his spoils, and lay them at your feet." With a stern look and an inflexible resolution, the father replied, "Unhappy boy, as thou hast regarded neither the dignity of the consulship, nor the commands of thy father; as thou hast destroyed military discipline, and set a pattern of disobedience by thy example; thou hast reduced me to the deplorable extremity of sacrificing my son or my country. But let me not hesitate in this dreadful alternative: a thousand lives were well lost in such a cause; and I do not think, that

* This battle was fought at the foot of Mount *Vesuvius*, and hence it appears, that the Romans began now to act at a distance from the capital.

thou thyself wilt refuse to die, when thy country is to reap the advantage of thy sufferings. Go, lictor, bind him, and let his death be our future example." Having uttered these words, he crowned him in the sight of his whole army, and then caused his head to be cut off. The whole army was struck with horror at this unnatural decree; and when they saw their young champion's head cut off, and his blood streaming on the ground, they could no longer repress their execrations and their groans. The dead body, adorned with the spoils of the vanquished enemy, was carried without the camp, and buried with all the pomp of military distress, and all the commiseration which was due to such ill-requited heroism.

The Campanians having requested the assistance of the Samnites against Rome, renewed the war between the latter people and the Romans, which, though intermitted by various treaties and suspensions, was to terminate only with the ruin of the Samnites. The senate having refused the Samnites equal and reasonable terms of accommodation, Pontius, their general, decoyed the Romans into an occupied defile, called Claudium, in which they were so completely hemmed in, "that the gods themselves," says Livy, "could not have delivered them without a miracle." After having stripped the Roman army of all but their under garments, Pontius obliged them to pass under the yoke (B. C. 311, U. C. 437). He then stipulated, that they should wholly quit the territories of the Samnites, and that they should religiously adhere to the conditions of amity formerly established between the two nations.

This calamity was so severely felt in Rome, that an opportunity was sought of breaking a compact, which the army had made merely by compulsion. The consuls, therefore, who had entered into the treaty, offered themselves up to the enemy, as the only persons that could be called to an account. Pontius exclaimed against the perfidy of Rome, and the war was renewed with increased virulence. The Tarentines, the Lucani, the Thurini, and all the southern states of Italy, by turns, assisted the Samnites, and endeavoured, in vain, to check the progress of the conquering Romans.

Unable to defend themselves, the Italian states were obliged to call in the assistance of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to save them from impending ruin. This prince, who was

possessed of great courage, ambition, and power, was reckoned one of the most experienced generals of his time, and commanded a body of troops, then supposed to be the best disciplined in the world. Soon after, being applied to by the Tarentines (B. C. 271), who, in the name of all the declining states of Italy, conjured Pyrrhus to save them from the threatened distress, he put to sea with three thousand horse, twenty thousand foot, and twenty elephants; but of this great armament only a small part arrived in Italy with Pyrrhus.

Upon his arrival at Tarentum, he observed a total dissolution of manners in this luxurious city, and that the inhabitants were occupied with the pleasures of bathing, feasting, dancing, rather than with the care of preparing for war. He, therefore, gave orders that all their places of public entertainment should be shut up, and that they should be restrained in all such amusements as rendered soldiers effeminate. He also attempted to repress their licentious manner of treating their governors, and even summoned some, who had treated his own name with ridicule, to appear before him; but he was prevented from punishing them, by their ingenuous manner of confessing the charge. "Yes," said they, "we have spoken all this against you, and we would have said still more, had not our wine been out."

The king of Epirus offered to mediate between the Romans and the people of Tarentum; but the consul Lævinus, who had been sent with a numerous body of forces to interrupt his progress, replied, that he neither valued him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy. The two hostile armies approached, and pitched their tents in sight of each other, on the opposite banks of the river Lylis. The Romans crossed the river, and commenced the engagement, which, after some time, became general. Pyrrhus was constantly seen at the head of his men; and at once performing the office of a general, and the duty of a common soldier, he shewed the greatest presence of mind, joined to the greatest valour. The Greeks fought with a consciousness of their former fame, and the Romans with a desire of gaining fresh laurels. Two such differently disciplined armies had never before opposed each other; and it is yet disputed, whether, at that time, the Greek phalanx, or the Roman legion, was preferable. The Romans had seven times repulsed the enemy, and

were as often driven back themselves ; but, at length, the elephants, by their intrepid fierceness, and by the castles that were raised upon their backs, and filled with armed men, decided the engagement in favour of the Greeks. Fifteen thousand Romans were killed on the spot, and eighteen hundred taken prisoners. Pyrrhus was himself wounded, and lost thirteen thousand of his troops. " Such another victory," said he, " would ruin my whole army."

The Romans, though defeated, were still unsubdued. With all necessary diligence, they began to recruit their forces, and oppose the conqueror, who, joined by the southern states of Italy, was marching directly towards Rome. Pyrrhus, unwilling to drive the republic to an extremity, and finding that they were making preparations, sent his friend Cineas, the orator, to negotiate, and use all his eloquence to induce them to peace. Cineas began his negociation, by attempting to influence, not only the senators, but also their wives, by presents, which he pretended were sent them by his master, but which the Romans would not accept.

Never was there a time, in the history of any nation, in which all the military and patriotic virtues shone with greater lustre than now at Rome. The senators having by a late law reduced their fortunes more on a level with those of the people, began to seek distinction from virtue alone, and despised those riches which could not be increased to such a degree as to place them at a distance from the vulgar. Cineas, after exhausting all his artifice, and finding the Romans incapable of being seduced either by bribery or private persuasion, changed his mode of attack, and requested introduction to an audience of the senate. Being admitted, he first extolled his master's courage and clemency, his desire of patronising the brave, and his particular esteem for the Romans. He then proceeded to inculcate the blessings of peace, and the happy opportunity which the senate now had of restoring it. He offered, in the name of his master, to return all that had been lately taken in Italy, without ransom ; to assist the Romans on any future occasion ; and all that he asked was their alliance and friendship, together with permission to have the Tarentines included in the treaty. The whole assembly was affected with these offers, and still more with the eloquence of the orator ; and a general

inclination seemed to prevail in favour of the king's proposal.

At this critical juncture, Appius Claudius, an old senator, who was grown blind with age, and had long withdrawn from public business, caused himself to be carried into the house in a litter. On seeing this venerable character again in the senate, the whole assembly was awed into silence and attention. He reprobated the idea of concluding a peace with Pyrrhus, and observed that, if they refused to contend with the king of Epirus in the field, all the neighbouring states of Italy would treat them with contempt, and that by endeavouring to avoid one war, they would engage themselves in a hundred. This speech inflamed the assembly with the ardour of patriotism, and removed the impression which the smooth orations of Cineas had made on their minds.

The senate dismissed him with an answer, intimating, that Pyrrhus must withdraw his forces from Italy, before they would treat with him on the subject of peace. When Cineas returned to his master, he extolled both the virtues and the grandeur of the Romans, and observed, that "the senate appeared a reverend assembly of demi-gods, and the city a temple for their reception."

The Roman troops having recovered from their late defeat, and the panic which had formerly seized the soldiers from the sight of the elephants beginning to wear off, the generals applied themselves to imitate the discipline of Pyrrhus, and the Grecian method of encampment. Both armies met near the city of Asculum, and both were nearly equal in numbers. At first, the Roman legions were unable to pierce the Greek phalanx; but, becoming careless of their own lives, a dreadful slaughter ensued on both sides. However, after a long and obstinate engagement, the Grecian discipline prevailed, and the Romans were obliged to retire to their camp, leaving six thousand men dead on the field of battle. The enemy also lost four thousand of their best men. When, therefore, one of the soldiers of Pyrrhus congratulated him upon his victory, "One such triumph more," replied he, "and I shall be undone."

This battle finished the campaign; and the next season began with equal vigour on both sides. While the two armies were approaching, and only at a small distance from each other, a letter was brought to Fabricius, the

Roman consul, from the king's physician, who, for an adequate reward, offered to take his off master by poison, and thus rid the Romans of a powerful enemy and a dangerous war. This base proposal excited the honest indignation of Fabricius, who, after communicating it to his colleague, informed Pyrrhus of the affair, and lamented his unfortunate choice of friends and enemies, observing, that he had trusted and promoted murderers, while he directed his resentment against the generous and the brave.

Pyrrhus now perceived, that the Romans, though less refined than the Greeks, would not suffer him to be their superior even in generosity; and he received the message with as much amazement at their candour, as indignation at the treachery of his physician. "Admirable Fabricius!" exclaimed he, "it would be as easy to turn the sun from its course, as thee from the paths of honour." After ordering his physician to be executed, he immediately sent to Rome all his prisoners without ransom, and again desired to negotiate a peace. The Romans, however, refused to enter into a negotiation, except on the same conditions as they had offered before, and released as many of the Samnites and the Tarentines as equalled the number of the prisoners whom they had received. Pyrrhus, therefore, was glad of an invitation from the Sicilians, who begged relief against the Carthaginians. On this pretext, he placed a garrison in Tarentum, and withdrew the rest of his forces from Italy.

After acquiring in Sicily victories rather splendid than useful, the king of Epirus was glad of another specious pretence for leaving that island, and, with some difficulty, returned to Tarentum, at the head of twenty thousand foot and three thousand horse. The Roman people being unwilling to enlist, the consuls commanded the names of the citizens to be drawn by lot, and that he who first refused to take the field should be sold as a slave. This timely severity had its effect, and the same measure was afterwards employed on similar occasions.

A general engagement ensued between the Greeks and the Romans; and Pyrrhus, finding the balance of the victory turning against him, had once more recourse to his elephants. These, however, being rendered furious by some balls of fire which were thrown amongst them, fell back upon their own army, bearing down the ranks, and filling

all places with terror and confusion. Thus, after a long struggle, victory declared in favour of the Romans, and Pyrrhus lost twenty-three thousand of his best soldiers, and his camp also was taken. After this defeat, he embarked his troops, and bade an eternal adieu to Italy, leaving a garrison at Tarentum, merely to save appearances, and keep his allies from despair, by inducing them to believe, that they should receive speedy assistance from Greece (B. C. 265, U. C. 483). The Romans made themselves masters of Tarentum, and demolished its walls, granting the inhabitants liberty and protection under their own powerful auspices.

Soon after the fall of Tarentum, Rome became mistress of all the countries in Italy, from the remotest parts of Etruria to the Ionian Sea, and from the Tyrrhenian to the Adriatic. But though all the different states in that tract lost their independence, they did not all enjoy the same privileges: some were entirely subjected to the Roman laws; some were allowed to live under their original institutions; some were tributary; some were allies; some enjoyed all the privileges of denizens of Rome; and others were admitted to a right of suffrage in the elections of the Campus Martius. These different degrees of honour, privileges, and liberty, were founded on the different terms granted to the conquered, upon their surrender; and were afterwards modified or increased, according to their fidelity, and the services which they rendered to the republic of Rome.

The Romans being obliged to import supplies from foreign nations, the people began secretly to wish for the possession of Sicily, which had for some time served as a granary of Rome (B. C. 255, U. C. 493). At that time, the Carthaginians possessed the greatest part of Sicily, and, like the Romans, wanted only an opportunity of embroiling the natives, in order to become masters of the whole island. Hiero, king of Syracuse, entreated the assistance of the Carthaginians against the Mamertines; whilst the latter, to ward off impending ruin, put themselves under the protection of Rome. The Romans, who were too proud to dignify the Mamertines with the name of allies, boldly declared war against Carthage, alleging that the Carthaginians had lately assisted the southern parts of Italy against Rome. Thus commenced what was called the first *Punic war*.

The Romans knew little of the method of transporting an army by sea; but Appius Claudius, by means of a feeble fleet, or, as some say, a raft of timber, wafted over a small body of forces into Sicily, where victory, as usual, was still attendant on the Roman eagles. But an insurmountable obstacle was opposed to their ambitious views, by the Carthaginians possessing a very powerful fleet, and having the entire command at sea. However, a Carthaginian vessel happening to be driven ashore in a storm, the Romans diligently set about imitating this ship, and, on the same plan, built one hundred and twenty vessels with amazing expedition. The Romans being perfectly ignorant of maritime affairs, were first taught to row on land, and instructed, as well as circumstances would permit, in the manner of naval engagements. With this newly-constructed armament, the consul Duillius ventured to sea; and, the two rival fleets meeting, the Carthaginians lost fifty of their ships, and the undisturbed sovereignty of the sea, which they valued more.

Though the consul Regulus subdued the islands Lipara and Melita, now Malta; and the city of Agrigentum in Sicily, and Alberia in Corsica, acknowledged the dominion of Rome; yet the Romans became sensible that the conquest of Sicily was to be obtained only by humbling the power of Carthage at home. Resolving, therefore, to carry the war into Africa, they sent Regulus and Manlius, with a fleet of three hundred sail, and one hundred and forty thousand men, to make the invasion.

Regulus was reckoned the most consummate warrior that Rome could then produce. He was a professed example of frugal severity; but less austere to others than to himself, he reprehended only those faults which he would have died rather than have committed. His patriotism was greater than even his temperance; and all the private passions seemed extinguished in him, or swallowed up in one great ruling affection, the love of his country. As if he had entertained a presentiment of his misfortunes, he was unwilling to accept this last commission, and wrote to the senate an excuse in the following terms: "A day-labourer, taking advantage of the death of the farmer who held my field, amounting to six acres, has robbed me of my implements of husbandry, and fled. My presence is, therefore, necessary for the cultivation of it, without which I cannot possibly maintain my wife and children." The senate immediately obviated this difficulty, by taking the

charge of his domestic concerns on themselves, and ordered Regulus to continue his command. Accordingly, the two generals set sail with their fleet, which was the greatest that had ever yet left an Italian port, and carried one hundred and forty thousand men.

They were met by the Carthaginians with a fleet as powerful, and men better exercised in naval affairs (B. C. 245, U. C. 503). The Romans, however, grappling with them, were finally successful; and the enemy's fleet was dispersed, and fifty-four vessels were taken. In consequence of this victory, an immediate descent was made on the coast of Africa, and the city of Clypea captured, together with twenty thousand men, who were made prisoners of war.

The senate being informed of these great successes, commanded Manlius back to Italy to superintend the Sicilian war, and continued Regulus in Africa, under the title of proconsul. In the mean time, the Carthaginians, finding that the Romans were making rapid advances to their very capital, attacked them with a considerable army, but were defeated with great loss. This and the defection of their allies, together with the submission of more than eighty of their towns, induced the Carthaginians to endeavour to obtain a peace; but the terms proposed being considered as too rigid, the treaty was broken off, and both sides resolutely prepared for war. The Carthaginians obtained from Sparta a general who was called Xantippus, and who levied and disciplined men for the army which he was to command. An engagement took place, in which the Romans, after an obstinate resistance, were overthrown with dreadful slaughter, the greatest part of their army being destroyed, and Regulus himself taken prisoner.

This great and unexpected victory filled the inhabitants of Carthage with ungovernable joy; and they could never sufficiently satisfy themselves with gazing on the conqueror, though he was only small in stature, and of a very mean appearance. But their admiration was soon turned into envy; and they could not bear to owe to a stranger that safety, which they wanted virtue and abilities to procure for themselves. Xantippus was not ignorant of their malignity, and wishing to lessen their malevolence, requested permission to resign his command, and desired a ship to convey him to his own country. If historians say true, their ingratitude on this occasion was even more disgraceful

than their former jealousy and rancour; for pretending to furnish him with the most honourable conveyance, they gave the mariners private orders to throw him and his companions overboard, lest the honour of obtaining so great a victory should be ascribed to a stranger. Thus the term "Punic faith" has been used to signify deceit; and "Punic reward" may express the basest ingratitude.

For some time, the affairs of the Carthaginians continued to improve, while those of Rome seemed to decline. The remains of the Roman army were besieged in Clypea, a city on the coast of Africa, which Regulus had taken; and though it was for a while relieved by means of a naval victory, under the conduct of Æmilius Paulus, they were ultimately obliged to evacuate the place. Soon after, the Romans lost their whole fleet in a storm; and Agrigentum, their principal town in Sicily, fell into the hands of Karthalo, the Carthaginian general. With a perseverance which marked their character, the Romans undertook to build a new fleet; but the mariners, who were not yet acquainted with the Mediterranean shores, drove it upon quick sands, and, soon after, the greatest part perished in a storm. Thus frustrated in every naval attempt, they, for a while, gave up all hopes of rivalling the Carthaginians at sea, and directed all their attention to the conquest of Sicily, which they in a great measure effected.

However, fourteen years of disastrous war exhausted the Carthaginian resources, and they again shewed an inclination for peace. They resolved to send to Rome to negotiate this business, or at least procure an exchange of prisoners; and for this purpose, they employed Regulus, who had been treated with great severity, and kept in a dungeon during four years, and from whom they exacted a promise to return in case of being unsuccessful. When this illustrious Roman appeared before the senate, he dissuaded them from concluding a peace with the Carthaginians, whose forces, he said, were reduced, and whose finances were so exhausted, that they could no longer pay the mercenaries, that were their chief strength. We do not know that the senate offered to cede any of the interests of the republic to save the generous captive; but some of that body were eager to prove, that he was under no obligation to return to Carthage, and fulfil an engagement exacted by force. Regulus, however, indignantly replied, "Though I know that to

tures await me at Carthage, yet I prefer them to an act which would cover me with infamy in my tomb. It is my duty to return, and other matters I leave to the gods." After his return, he was plunged into the obscurest dungeon, whence he was taken to be exposed to the burning rays of an African sun, his eye-lids being first cut off. He was then inclosed in a box pierced with iron spikes, in which he expired. The senate of Rome delivered the principal of the Carthaginian prisoners to his wife Marcia, who caused them to suffer a slow death, in tortures like those inflicted on her husband. Such acts of retaliation and revenge are alike detestable; and those who are guilty of them, deserve the hatred and execration of mankind.

The perseverance of the Romans was crowned with success, and one victory followed another; and, at length, the Carthaginians were obliged to sue for peace, which Rome thought proper to grant. Among other particulars, it was stipulated, that the Carthaginians should pay a thousand talents of silver to defray the charges of the war; that they should pay two thousand two hundred more in ten years' time; that they should quit Sicily, with all the neighbouring islands; that they should never make war against the allies of Rome, nor come with any vessels of war within the Roman dominions; and that all the prisoners and deserters should be delivered up without ransom (B. C. 229, U. C. 519.) Six years after the conclusion of this treaty, the temple of Janus was shut, for the second time since the foundation of the city; and the Romans, being in friendship with all nations, had an opportunity of cultivating the arts of peace.

But they were by no means negligent in making fresh preparations for war. After an interval of eight years' peace, the Illyrians were the first people upon whom they tried their strength. That nation had long plundered the merchants of the Mediterranean with impunity, and were impelled by their evil genius to make depredations upon some of the trading subjects of Rome. A war ensued, in which the Romans were justly victorious, and obliged the Illyrians to conclude a peace, by which the greatest part of the country was ceded to Rome, and a yearly tribute exacted for the rest.

The Gauls thinking a time of peace, when the armies were disbanded, a proper season for new irruptions, this barbarous people collected fresh forces beyond the Alps,

entered Etruria, and wasted all with fire and sword, till they came within about three days' journey of Rome. The Romans surrounded the Gauls, who still retained their primeval mode of fighting, and who, having nothing but their courage to protect them, in vain formed two fronts to oppose their adversaries. Their unprotected bodies and undisciplined forces were unable to withstand the shock of an enemy completely armed, and skilled in military evolutions; and a dreadful carnage ensued, in which forty thousand men were killed, and ten thousand taken prisoners. This victory was followed by another gained over them by Marcellus, who killed Viridomarus, their king, with his own hand; and these conquests forced the Gauls to beg a peace, the conditions of which served greatly to enlarge the boundaries of the empire, though certainly not to strengthen its barriers on that side.

The Carthaginians, who made peace only because they were unable longer to continue the war, took the earliest opportunity of violating the treaty, and besieged Saguntum, a city which had been in alliance with Rome. In consequence, ambassadors were sent from Rome to Carthage, complaining of the infraction of the treaty, and demanding that Hannibal, who had advised this measure, should be delivered up. This demand being refused, one of the ambassadors, holding out the skirt of his robe, asked whether they would have peace or war; and the Carthaginians saying, with indifference, that he might decide for them, he replied, "Then let it be war." Thus leaving the assembly, the ambassadors returned to Rome. War being therefore again declared between these great rival powers, the Carthaginians entrusted the command of their army to Hannibal, who was the son of their former general, Hamilcar, and who had been made the sworn foe of Rome, almost from his infancy (B. C. 205, U. C. 543).

He swore upon the altar, that he would never be in friendship with the Romans, nor desist from opposing their power while life and opportunity allowed, until he or they should be no more; and he was faithful to his engagement. When he first appeared in the field, he united in his own person the most masterly method of commanding, with the most perfect obedience to his superiors. He possessed the greatest courage in opposing, and the greatest presence of mind in obviating, danger. No fatigue could subdue his body, nor any mis-

fortune break his spirit; and, equally patient of heat and cold, he took sustenance only to content nature, and not to gratify his appetite. His seasons for repose or labour were irregular and uncertain; and he was always ready when difficulties or his country demanded his aid. Covered only with his watch-coat, he frequently stretched himself on the ground among his sentinels. His dress differed in nothing from the most ordinary men of his army, except in his affecting peculiar elegance in his horses and armour. He was always the foremost to engage, and the last to retreat. He was prudent in his designs, which were extensive; and ever fertile in expedients to perplex his enemies, or rescue himself from danger. He was experienced, sagacious, provident, and bold. Such were the valuable qualities of this illustrious soldier, who is universally allowed to be the greatest general of antiquity. On the other hand, he was cruel and faithless, void of honour and religion, and yet possessed the art of simulation to such a degree, that he assumed the appearance of them all.

From such a soldier and politician, the Carthaginians formed the greatest expectations; and his actions soon confirmed, that their opinion of his abilities was justly founded. After taking Saguntum, he over-ran all Spain; and levying a large army of various languages and nations, he resolved to carry the war into Italy. For this purpose, he left Hanno, with a sufficient force, to guard his conquests in Spain, and crossed the Pyrenean mountains into Gaul, with an army of fifty thousand foot and nine thousand horse. In ten days he arrived at the foot of the Alps, over which he determined to explore a new passage. In this march, the Carthaginians encountered numberless and unforeseen calamities. At the end of fifteen days spent in crossing the Alps, Hannibal found himself in the plains of Italy, with about half his army remaining, the rest having died of the cold, or been cut off by the natives.

As soon as it was known in Rome, that Hannibal, at the head of a formidable army, was crossing the Alps, in order to invade their dominions, the senate sent Scipio to oppose him. Scipio brought up his forces, and engaged the Carthaginians near Ticinum; but a party of Numidian horse wheeling round, attacked the Romans in the rear, and, at length, obliged him to retreat with considerable loss.

Soon after, Sempromius, the other consul, perceiving that the continual defection of the Gauls increased the strength of the Punic army, determined to give battle the first opportunity. A decisive engagement ensued, in which the Romans were totally routed, with the loss of twenty-six thousand men, either killed by the enemy, or drowned in attempting to repass the river Trebia.

The loss of these two battles served only to increase the resolution of Hannibal, and the vigilance of Rome. The Carthaginian general, finding himself in a condition to change the seat of war, resolved to approach the Roman capital, by marching into Etruria. After passing through the marshes, in which the Carthaginian army suffered the most inconceivable fatigues, Hannibal, at length, arrived on dry ground, and found Flaminius the consul encamped near Aricia, waiting the arrival of the other consul with reinforcements from Rome. In order to bring the enemy to an engagement before the arrival of the reinforcements, he ravaged the whole country in a terrible manner, with fire and sword. Flaminius, as was expected, notwithstanding the advice of the senate and his confidential friends, came out to engage him near the lake of Thrasymene; near to which was a chain of mountains, and between these and the lake, a narrow passage leading to a valley, embosomed in hills. Upon these hills Hannibal disposed his best troops, and into this valley, Flaminius led his men to attack him. As might have been expected, the Roman army was broken and slaughtered almost before they could perceive the enemy that destroyed them (B.C. 204, U. C. 544). About fifteen thousand Romans fell in the valley, and six thousand yielded themselves prisoners of war.

In this general carnage, the brave but unfortunate Flaminius did all that courage could inspire for saving his army: wherever the enemy was most successful, he flew with a chosen body of his attendants to repel them; but, at last, despairing of victory, and determined not to survive a defeat, he flung himself alone into the midst of the enemy, and was killed by a Gaulish horseman, who pierced him with a lance. After the battle, Hannibal detained the Roman prisoners, but civilly dismissed the Latins; and he wished to give the consul an honourable interment, but his body could not be recognized in such a mass of carnage.

On the news of this defeat, after the general conster-

nation had in some measure subsided, the senate resolved to elect a commander with absolute authority, in whom they might repose their last hopes and entire confidence; and their choice fell on Fabius Maximus, a man of approved courage, but of a happy mixture of caution, who was sensible that the only way of humbling the Carthaginians at such a distance from home, was rather by harassing than by fighting them. For this purpose, he always encamped on the highest grounds; and when they removed, he likewise took a new position, watched their motions, straitened their quarters, and cut off their supplies. In vain Hannibal used every stratagem to bring him to a battle; the cautious Roman, thence surnamed Cunctator, the Delayer, kept aloof, and contented himself with seeing his enemy, in some measure, defeated by delay.

Hannibal, perceiving that his adversaries had changed their plan of operations, tried his usual arts to render Fabius despicable in the eyes of his own army. For this purpose, he sometimes braved him in his camp; sometimes wasted the country round him; always spoke of his abilities with contempt; and, in every incursion, spared the possessions of Fabius, while he plundered without mercy those of the other Romans. These Punic arts were not wholly unsuccessful. The Romans began to suspect their general either of treachery or cowardice; and a slight action which ensued soon after, gave strength to their suspicions.

However, the prudent Fabius began to turn Hannibal's own arts against him. He had inclosed that general among mountains, where it was impossible to winter, and yet from which it was almost impracticable to extricate his army without imminent danger. In this exigence, nothing but one of those stratagems which great men only are capable of forming, could save Hannibal. Having ordered a number of small faggots and lighted torches to be tied to the horns of two thousand oxen, which he had in his camp, he directed them to be driven towards the enemy. These tossing their heads, and running up the sides of the mountains, seemed to fill the whole neighbouring forest with fire; while the sentinels who were placed to guard the approaches of the mountain, seeing such an uncommon appearance advancing towards their posts, fell back in consternation, and supposed that the whole body of the enemy was in arms to overwhelm them. This stratagem enabled

Hannibal to draw off his army, and escape through the defiles beneath the hills, with considerable damage however to his rear; and though Fabius had conducted himself in this affair with the prudence and conduct of the most consummate general, the army began to charge him with ignorance in war, as they had formerly impeached his valour and fidelity.

Fabius returned to Rome, in order to raise money for the ransom of some Roman prisoners whom Hannibal offered to release; and in the mean time, he gave instructions to Minucius, his master of the horse, to abstain from giving the enemy battle, on any occasion whatever. Minucius, however, was made equal in power with the dictator, and abandoned the prudent plan of Fabius. He offered the enemy battle, and was on the point of being defeated, when Fabius came to his assistance, and saved him. Minucius, sensible of his error, renounced his new power, and again subjected himself wholly to the dictator.

Fabius being obliged to lay down his office, Terentius Varro and Æmilius Paulus were chosen consuls. The former was sprung from the dregs of the people, and had nothing but his confidence and riches to recommend him; the latter was experienced in the field, cautious in action, and impressed with a thorough contempt for the abilities of his colleague. Hannibal was at this time encamped near the village of Cannæ in Apulia, waiting the approach of the Romans. Æmilius was entirely averse from engaging; but when it was the other consul's turn to command, Varro, without asking the concurrence of his colleague, gave the signal for battle. He then passed the river Aufidus, which lay between the two armies, and put his forces in array. After a long and bloody engagement, the rout of the Roman army became general in every direction. Æmilius, however, still led on his body of horse, and endeavoured by prudent valour to retrieve the fortune of the day; but at length these were obliged to give way, and seek safety by flight. In this battle, the Romans lost fifty thousand men, two quæstors, twenty-one tribunes, eighty senators, and so many knights, that Hannibal sent three bushels of gold rings to Carthage, which those of this order wore on their fingers by way of distinction (B. C. 203, U. C. 545).

It was now universally expected, that Hannibal would

march his army to the gates of Rome, and make it an easy conquest. In the city, terror appeared in every face, and despair was the language of every tongue. At length, after the first consternation had abated, the senate resolved to create a dictator, and appointed Fabius and Marcellus to lead the armies. The delay of the Carthaginian general inspired the people with fresh courage, and they made all possible preparations for another campaign; and though Hannibal once more offered them peace, they refused it, but upon condition that he should quit Italy.

In the mean time, Hannibal, either finding the impossibility of marching directly to Rome, or willing to give his forces rest after so important a victory, resolved to winter his troops in Capua, a city which had long been considered as the nurse of luxury, and the corrupter of military virtue. Here a new scene of pleasure opened to the Carthaginians, who gave themselves up to intoxication, till, from hardy veterans, they became effeminate rioters. Antiquity has greatly blamed their general for losing that happy occasion when fortune seemed propitious, and exchanging empire for dissipation; but it has not been sufficiently considered, that Rome was still extremely powerful, and that it might have been rashness in Hannibal to lead his troops to the siege of a city strongly defended by art, and containing a garrison more than four times equal to his army.

The Carthaginian general was ill assisted by his countrymen, among whom Hanno, one of their former commanders, formed a party against him, and who delayed to send him a new supply of men and money. His first loss was at the siege of Nola, where Marcellus, the prætor, made a successful sally. However, for some years he fought with various success; but as he had exhausted all the arts of recruiting his forces, even victories could not retrieve his affairs. At length, the Carthaginians sent his brother Asdrubal to his assistance, with a body of forces drawn out of Spain. The march of Asdrubal being made known to the consuls Livius and Nero, they surrounded him, and cut his whole army to pieces. Hannibal had long expected these succours with impatience; and the same night on which he had been assured of his brother's arrival, Nero ordered the head of Asdrubal to be cut off, and thrown into his brother's camp. The Carthaginian general now perceived the disasters of his country, and observed with a sigh to those about him, "that fortune

seemed fatigued with granting her favours, and was now disposed to resume them."

Though the Romans were yet bleeding from their defeat at Cannæ, they made head against Hannibal in Italy; undertook a new war against Philip, king of Macedon; and sent legions into Spain, Sardinia, and Sicily; and fortune seemed to favour them in almost all their enterprises. Marcellus took the city of Syracuse in Sicily, after a long and vigorous defence; and Scipio gradually reduced all Spain to the obedience of the Romans. Though Hannibal was unsupported at home, and but indifferently assisted by his allies in Europe, yet he still maintained his position in Italy, where he had continued for more than fourteen years.

Spain and Sicily being added to the empire, the Romans soon found resources for continuing the Punic war. Scipio, instead of attacking Hannibal in Italy, passed over into Africa with a large fleet, and was joined by Masinissa, the deposed king of Numidia. Hanno opposed him, but was defeated and slain. The Roman general then attacked the army of Syphax, the usurper of Numidia, whom he overthrew, with the loss of forty thousand men killed, and six thousand captured. Soon after, Syphax was again defeated, and taken prisoner, with his wife Sophonisba.

The Carthaginians, terrified at their repeated defeats, and the fame of Scipio's former successes, dispatched deputies to Hannibal, positively commanding him to return out of Italy, in order to oppose the Roman general, who threatened Carthage with a siege. Hannibal, though he had long foreseen the ruin of his country, but at the same time knew, that Italy was the only place in which its fate could be suspended, obeyed the orders of Carthage with great submission, and left Italy with tears in his eyes, after having kept possession of the most beautiful parts of it for above fifteen years.

After his arrival in Africa, he desired a meeting with Scipio, to confer upon terms of peace, to which the Roman general assented. The two greatest generals in the world came to an interview in a large plain between their armies; and each, for a while, silently regarded his opponent, as if struck with mutual reverence and esteem. In figure, Scipio was adorned with all the advantages of manly beauty. Hannibal, on the contrary, bore the marks of hard campaigns in his visage; and the loss of one eye gave

a sternness to his aspect. Hannibal spoke to the following effect: "If I were not convinced of the equity of the Romans, I would not this day demand peace from the son, over whose father I have formerly been victorious. Would to heaven, that the same moderation, which I hope inspires us now, had prevailed at the commencement of the war! If you had been content with the limits of your Italian dominions, and we had never aimed at adding Sicily to our empire, both sides had spared that blood which no rewards from victory can repay. With respect to myself, age has taught me the inanity of triumphs, and the instability of fortune; but you are young, and perhaps not yet instructed in the school of adversity. You are now what I was after the battles of Cannæ and Thrasymene, and you will perhaps aim at splendid, rather than at useful virtues. But consider, that peace is the end at which all victories should aim; and that peace my country has sent me here to offer. Do not, therefore, expose to the hazard of an hour that fame which you have obtained by an age of conquest. At present, Scipio, fortune is in your power; a moment of time may give it to your enemy. But let me not call myself such: it is Hannibal who now addresses you, Hannibal who esteems your virtues, and desires your friendship. To both of us peace will be useful. I shall be proud of the alliance of Rome; and it is in your power to convert an active enemy into a steadfast friend."

To this Scipio briefly replied, "That as the wars which he mentioned had been begun by the Carthaginians, they ought not to complain of the consequences; that as to himself, he could never condemn his own perseverance on the side of justice; that some outrages had been committed during the last truce, which required reparation; and that, if this was agreed to, he was willing to conclude a treaty."

Both sides parted dissatisfied, and returned to their respective camps to prepare for deciding the controversy with the sword. Never was a more memorable battle fought, whether we regard the generals, the armies, the two contending states, or the empire in dispute. On this occasion, Hannibal disposed his men in a manner superior even to his former arrangements. The Carthaginians, however, were totally defeated, twenty thousand of them being killed in the battle or pursuit, and as many taken prisoners. Hannibal, who had acquitted himself as a great general and an undaunted soldier, fled to Adrumetum, where he paused

on the instability of fortune, and the ruins of his country. In consequence of this defeat, the Carthaginians submitted to a treaty, which obliged them to quit Spain, and all the islands in the Mediterranean Sea; to pay ten thousand talents in fifty years; to give hostages for the delivery of their ships and their elephants; to restore to Masinissa all his territories; and not to make war in Africa, but by permission of the Romans. Thus ended the second Punic war (B. C. 188, U. C. 560).

The senate continued to carry on the Macedonian war against Philip, who had entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians during the conquests of Hannibal. After suffering several defeats, the king of Macedon was obliged to beg a peace, which was granted him on condition of paying a thousand talents, one half in ready money, and the other half in the space of ten years. The Romans then pretended to restore liberty to Greece, whose institutions they had long admired and followed.

Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, was a monarch, whose strength and fame stimulated the ambition of the Romans; and after some embassies on both sides, war was declared against him. Lucius Scipio, brother to the famous Africanus, was appointed to command the forces destined to act against the king of Syria, whom he defeated in several engagements. Being reduced to the last extremity, Antiochus was glad to procure peace of the Romans upon their own terms. They required him to pay fifteen thousand talents; quit all his possessions in Europe, and all in Asia on the hither side of mount Taurus; to give twenty hostages as pledges of his fidelity; and to deliver up Hannibal, who had been expelled from Carthage, and who had sought refuge with the king of Syria. In consequence of his success, Lucius Scipio obtained the surname of Asiaticus. Hannibal fled for protection to the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, whither the Romans sent Æmilius, one of their celebrated generals, to demand him. Implacably pursued from one country to another, and finding all methods of safety cut off, this brave but unfortunate man determined to die.

He, therefore, desired one of his followers to bring him poison, which he had ready for this exigence, and while he was preparing to take it, he said, "Let us rid the
" of their terrors, since they are unwilling to
" death of an old man like me. There was

" more generosity existed among them, when they would
" have guarded their enemy from poison; and now they
" basely send an embassy to seek the life of a banished man,
" and compel a feeble monarch to break the laws of hospi-
" tality." With these words, he drank the poison, and died,
as he had lived, with intrepid bravery.

In the third year after the conclusion of the war with Antiochus, Scipio Africanus was accused of defrauding the treasury of the plunder taken in war, and of too intimate a correspondence with that king. A day being appointed him to answer for his conduct, Scipio obeyed the summons; but, instead of attempting a defence, he reminded the people that on that very day he had conquered Hannibal and gained the battle of Zama. Though the tribunes were foiled in this attempt, yet they proceeded to accuse him in the senate; Scipio, therefore, withdrew to Linturnum, a town on the coast of Campania, and at his death ordered the following epitaph to be engraven on his tomb: " Un-
" grateful country! thou shalt not possess my bones."*

The factious spirit once more broke out in Rome, and continued for several years, during all the subsequent wars and victories over the Ligurians, Istrians, Sardinians, Corsicans, and Macedonians; for the Romans soon after entered into a second Macedonian war, with Perses, the son of Philip, who had commenced hostilities against Rome. At length, Perses was completely defeated by Æmilius, near the river Enipeus, and sought for safety by flying into Crete; but being abandoned by all, he was obliged to surrender himself, and to grace the triumph of the Roman general. He was led, with his two sons, before the conqueror's chariot into Rome; while Gentius, king of the Illyrians, and his confederates, in the same manner preceded the chariot of Lucius Anicus, one of the Roman admirals.

The wars in which the Romans engaged, brought such immense riches into the treasury, that they found a pretext to enter on the third and last Punic war. The Carthaginians, affrighted at the Roman armaments, against which they were totally unprepared, humbly offered to make any

* To this consummate general, Hannibal paid the following elegant compliment. Being asked whom he considered the greatest commanders, he replied, " The first is Alexander, the second Pyrrhus, and the third myself." " If you had conquered me," rejoined Scipio, " in what rank would you have placed yourself?" " In the first," answered the Carthaginian.

concessions. The Romans demanded three hundred hostages within thirty days, as a security for their future good conduct, and an implicit obedience to their further commands. The infatuated Carthaginians, sacrificing every thing to their love of peace, sent their children within the limited time. The Romans then required all their arms; and finding this demand also complied with, they ordered the Carthaginians to leave their city, which was to be levelled with the ground, at the same time allowing them to build another not less than ten miles from the sea. This severe and despotic injunction drove the unfortunate people to despair, and they resolved to fight to the last for their seat of empire, and the habitations of their ancestors.

Asdrubal, who had been lately condemned for opposing the Romans, was liberated from prison, and placed at the head of the army. Such were the preparations for the defence of Carthage, that when the consuls came before the city, which they expected to find an easy conquest, they met with repulses which quite dispirited their forces, and shook their resolution. Several engagements were fought before the walls, generally to the disadvantage of the assailants; and the Romans would have discontinued the siege, had not Scipio Æmilianus, the adopted son of Africanus, used as much skill to save his forces after a defeat, as to inspire them with hopes of ultimate victory. After seducing Pharnes, the master of the Carthaginian horse, he went on successfully, and at length drove the inhabitants into the citadel, which was obliged to surrender at discretion. Some having taken refuge in the temple, set it on fire, and the conflagration was extended by the merciless conquerors over the whole of this noble city, which was twenty-four miles in compass, and which the senate ordered to be levelled with the ground (B. C. 146, U. C. 602). All the cities which had assisted Carthage, were devoted to the same fate, and the lands belonging to them were given to the friends of the Romans.

The conquest of Carthage was followed by that of Corinth, one of the noblest cities of Greece, in the same year. Scipio, who had destroyed Carthage, and was also surnamed Africanus, took Numantia, the strongest city in Spain, and reduced the whole of that country into a province of Rome (B. C. 132). Success had now intoxicated the Romans to such a degree, that they already considered the world as their own, and treated other nations not as

equals, but as vassals to their pleasure or aggrandizement. The Roman power and glory had now reached their acme; and though their conquests might be more numerous, and their dominions more extensive, their extension was rather an increase of territory than of strength. They daily degenerated from their ancient modesty, temperance, and simplicity of life.

The two Gracchi* first perceived this strange corruption among the great, and resolved to repress it, by renewing the Licinian law. This law, which had been openly violated by the nobility for upwards of two hundred and fifty years, forbade any citizen to possess more than five hundred acres of land, and decreed that the overplus should become the property of the state. Tiberius Gracchus, the elder brother, was distinguished both for the advantages of his person and the qualities of his mind. Unhappily, however, his passions, rather than his reason, operated even in his pursuits of virtue. Anxious to prevent the Licinian law from being wrested to the advantage of the great, as it had hitherto been, as soon as he was chosen tribune, he caused it to be enacted, that one half of the illicit surplus should be given to the children of the transgressor, and the other half distributed to the poor who had nothing. Three officers, called triumviri, were also appointed to examine and determine the quantity of land occupied by every individual. This, of course, irritated the rich, who endeavoured to persuade the people, that the proposer aimed only at disturbing the government, and producing confusion; but Gracchus easily removed these aspersions, and, in spite of interested ambition, carried his object.

Attalus, king of Pergamus, having left the Romans his heirs, Gracchus proposed, that the money so devised should be divided among the poor, as well as the lands, which became theirs by the late law of partition. Tiberius, finding his speech interrupted by the clamour of the clients of the great, and of the favourers of democracy, put his hand

* The Sempronian family, though plebeian, was one of the most illustrious in the commonwealth. Tib. Sempronius Gracchus had been twice raised to the consulate, and had been honoured with two triumphs; but he was still more renowned for his domestic virtues and probity than for his birth or valour. He married the daughter of the first Africanus, the famous Cornelia, who was the pattern of her sex, and the prodigy of her age, and had by her several children, of whom three only arrived at maturity of years, Libernus Gracchus, Caius Gracchus, and a daughter named Sempronia, who was married to the second Africanus.

to his head, to intimate that his life was in danger. The partisans of the senate, perverting his meaning, insinuated that he wanted a diadem. In consequence of this, an uproar spread itself through all ranks; and Tiberius was struck dead with a piece of a bench, and three hundred of his partisans were killed in the tumult.

Caius Gracchus, the brother of Tiberius, who was brave, affable, and temperate, and had employed his solitude in the study of eloquence, having been indignantly treated by the senate whilst with the army in Sardinia, came to Rome, and offered himself for the tribuneship of the people. Being elected, notwithstanding the warmest opposition of the senate, he cited before the people Popilius, one of the most inveterate of his brother's enemies, who, rather than stand the event of a trial, chose to go into voluntary exile. He next procured an edict, granting the freedom of the city to the inhabitants of Latium, and, soon after, to all the people on the hither side of the Alps. He caused the late corruptions of the senate to be scrutinized; and the whole of that body being convicted of bribery, extortion, and the sale of offices, a law was enacted, transferring the power of judging corrupt magistrates from the senate to the knights, which effected a great alteration in the constitution. He caused public granaries to be built, which he stored with grain against times of scarcity. In short, he was just, wise, temperate, active, and seemingly born to restore the ancient simplicity of Rome, had it been in the power of one person to accomplish it: but Rome was now so depraved, that nothing could restore it to its primitive innocence.

Gracchus, who was become the object against which the senate directed all their resentment, contrary to their expectations, was chosen a second time to the tribuneship, without any efforts on his side to procure his re-election (B. C. 122). They, therefore, endeavoured to oppose his popularity, by setting up a rival, who was Drusus, his colleague. This man seemed to go even beyond Gracchus in every proposal, and being secretly encouraged by the senate, obtained the confidence and affection of the people. On this occasion, the jealousy of Gracchus quickly blazed out; and he treated his colleague with contempt. This, as the senate had foreseen, caused a very powerful party of his former admirers to declare against him.

However, the greatest effort to ruin Gracchus was yet in

retire. Ever since his return to Rome from Sardinia, he had been elected one of the *triumviri*, an office instituted by his brother Tiberius, to determine the quantity of land possessed by each individual of the state. In this employment he shewed himself extremely assiduous, and being impressed with the same fraternal spirit of equality, endeavoured to regulate each man's possessions according to law, with inflexible justice. Those who thought themselves aggrieved by his severity, had recourse for redress to Scipio Africanus, who obtained Tuditanus, the consul, to be chosen to settle the claims of individuals among each other, before those of the public could be determined by the *triumviri*. When Tuditanus could no longer defer the settlement of the lands in question, he pretended to be called off to quell an insurrection, and thus left the claims and the wishes of the people undecided. An universal clamour was raised against Scipio, by whose artifice the procrastination took place, and whom one of the tribunes even cited to appear, and answer for the assassination of Tiberius Gracchus. Scipio, however, disdaining to meet the charge, was found dead in his bed next morning, and, by a mark round his neck, it appeared that he had been strangled.

The death of this great man produced much suspicion against the leaders of the popular party, and particularly against Gracchus, who scorned to clear himself from a crime of which there were no proofs against him. However, on his return from Carthage, which he had proposed to rebuild and people from Rome, he found the populace faithless and unsteady, and ready to withdraw all their confidence from him, and place it upon Drusus, whose character was unimpeached. In vain he designed new laws in their favour, and called up several of the inhabitants of the different towns of Italy to his support. The senate ordered them all to depart from Rome; and on his standing for the tribuneship a third time, he was rejected, through the artifice of his enemies. He was no sooner reduced to a private station, than the senate deputed Opimus, the consul, who was his mortal enemy, to be the instrument of their malignity against him. Opimus proceeded to abrogate all the laws which had been made during the two tribuneships of Caius, and appointed a day for that purpose.

However, not satisfied with the protection of all the senate, the knights, and a numerous retinue of slaves, the

consul was also attended by a body of Candians, who were mercenaries in the Roman service. Thus guarded, and conscious of the superiority of his force, he insulted Gracchus wherever he met him; but the latter avoided all recrimination, and, as if apprised of the consul's design, would wear no kind of arms for his defence. However, his friend Flaccus, a zealous tribune, was not so remiss; but being resolved to oppose party to party, he brought up several countrymen to Rome, under a pretence of their seeking employment.

When the time for determining the controversy was arrived, one of the lictors having called the party of Gracchus "factious citizens," was instantly killed. His murder caused a great disturbance in the assembly; and the senate took every method to alarm the city, by investing the consul with dictatorial power, causing the dead lictor's corse to be carried through the streets, and ordering the whole body of nobles to appear the next day, with their slaves and dependants, upon Mount Aventine. The consuls proclaimed, "that whoever would bring the head of Gracchus, or that of Flaccus his friend, should receive its weight in gold." It was to no purpose that Gracchus repeatedly sent the youngest son of Flaccus, who was yet a child, with proposals for an accommodation. The senate and the consuls, sensible of their superiority, rejected all his offers, and resolved to punish his offence with death. Gracchus fled for refuge to a grove beyond the Tiber, which had long been dedicated to the Furies; and finding himself surrounded on every side, he prevailed on his slave to kill him.

Thus died Gracchus, ten years after his brother Tiberius, from whose characters it appears, that all justice was on their side, and all injury on that of the senate (B. C. 120, U. C. 628). In fact, this body, once so venerable, was now distinguished from the rest of the people only by their superior luxuries; and they ruled the commonwealth by the weight of that authority which is gained from riches, and a number of mercenary dependencies. In short, the empire had fallen under the domination of a hateful aristocracy; and nothing can appear more dreadful to a thinking mind, than the government of Rome from this period, till it found refuge under the mild but prudent despotism of Augustus.

Though the Romans had nearly lost their liberties, yet

they avariciously grasped at new dominions. They subdued the Belearic islands; the Allobroges, who inhabited the country now called Savoy; Gallia Narbonensis, which was reduced into a province; the Scordisci, a people of Thrace; and Jugurtha, king of Numidia. Jugurtha was grandson to the famous Masinissa, who had espoused the cause of Rome against Hannibal. He was educated with the two young princes, who were left to inherit the kingdom, and being their superior in abilities, and greatly in favour with the people, he murdered Hiempsal, the eldest son, and made the same attempt on Adherbal the younger, who escaped, and fled to the Romans for succour. Jugurtha, sensible of the avarice and injustice of the senate, sent his ambassadors to Rome with large presents, which so influenced the senate, that they decreed him half of the kingdom, which he had thus acquired by murder and usurpation, and deputed commissioners to divide it between him and Adherbal. Not satisfied even with this, Jugurtha contrived at length to murder Adherbal, and to seize the whole. The people of Rome, who still retained some generosity, unanimously complained of his treachery; but the senate, who had been bribed to silence, continued for a while in suspense. However, at length, a consul was sent with a powerful army to execute justice on the murderer; but he being also infected with the avarice of the times, suffered himself to be bribed, and made overtures for peace.

The people, now more enraged than before, procured a decree, that Jugurtha should be summoned in person before them, in order to give an account of all those who had accepted bribes. Jugurtha immediately obeyed, and appeared before the people in a suppliant manner, and in a dress corresponding with his situation; but instead of discovering those who were bribed, he only set about renewing the evil complained of; and, being sensible that everything was venal at Rome, he took the certain method of interesting them in his cause by the distribution of his riches. The people, therefore, soon ordered him to quit Rome, and sent Albinus the consul to traverse his designs. Albinus, however, was obliged to leave the direction of the army to Aulus, his brother, who was every way unequal to the command, and who, being led into great straits, was finally compelled to hazard a battle upon disadvantageous

terms; and his whole army, to avoid entire destruction, was obliged to pass under the yoke.

Caius Marius, who afterwards became the glory and the scourge of Rome, first acted as lieutenant to the consul Metellus, who now took the command of the army in Numidia. On the termination of the consulate of Metellus, he stood for the consulship, which he obtained, contrary to the expectation and influence of the higher orders (B. C. 106). He conquered Jugurtha, whom he carried to Rome loaded with chains, a deplorable instance of blasted ambition. Marius was born of poor parents, and was a man of extraordinary stature, incomparable strength, and undaunted bravery. He had entered early into the service of his country, and was remarkable for his exact observance of discipline. His detestation of the senate was soon conspicuous; and he boldly arraigned their corruptions even in the senate-house.

Soon after the termination of the Jugurthine war, an incredible number of barbarians from the north poured into the Roman dominions, and threatened Italy with slaughter and devastation. In this emergency, Marius, contrary to the constitution of the state, which required an interval of ten years, was made a second time consul, and sent against this people, who were the Cimbri and the Teutones. They had left their forests to the number of three hundred thousand men, in order to seek new habitations in the fruitful valleys of Italy (B. C. 101, U. C. 647). He defeated one body of them in a bloody battle, and took Theutobochus, king of the Teutones, prisoner; and, at length, he also gave the Cimbri a dreadful overthrow, in which one hundred and forty thousand of these barbarians were slain, and sixty thousand made captive.

By these victories, Marius became very formidable to distant nations in war, and soon after grew much more dangerous to his fellow-citizens in peace. Metellus, who had been his first patron and promoter, had long been hateful to him, for his superior influence in the senate; and he, therefore, earnestly wished to have him banished from Rome. To effect this, he suborned one Saturninus, who had fraudulently possessed himself of the tribuneship, to prefer a law for the partition of such lands as had been recovered in the late war, and oblige the senators to take a solemn oath for carrying it into execution, in case it was passed. By the interests of Marius, the law was soon

enacted; but Metellus, who considered it as a renewal of the ancient disturbances which had been so fatal to the constitution, endeavoured to persuade the senate to reject the measure with disdain. At first they seemed inclined to follow his advice; but the influence of Marius being superior, Metellus was obliged to go into voluntary banishment.

(B. C. 90.) The ambition of the allied states of Italy to obtain the rights of citizenship, produced the social war; which having raged two years with doubtful success, the senate began to reflect, that, whether conquerors or conquered, the Roman power would equally be annihilated. They, therefore, granted the freedom of the city to such of the Italian states as had not revolted, and then offered it to those which would soonest lay down their arms. By this means, peace was restored; but the states not being empowered to vote till all the other tribes had given their suffrages, acquired very little weight in the constitution.

The senate now turned their arms against Mithridates, the most powerful monarch of the East, whose dominion extended at this time over Cappadocia, Bithynia, Thrace, Macedon, and all Greece. The power and riches of this monarch served only the more to invite the ambition of Rome; and a pretence for war against Mithridates was easily found by the Romans. Sylla, who had been just chosen consul, was with general consent appointed to conduct the Asiatic war. The family of this general was one of the most illustrious in Rome. His manners were easy, and apparently sincere. He loved pleasure, but glory still more. Fond of popularity, he was desirous of pleasing all the world. For this purpose, he spoke of himself with diffidence, and of others with the highest commendations. He was extremely liberal; and he condescended to an acquaintance with the meanest soldiers, in order to gain their affections. In short, he was a Proteus, who could adapt himself to the inclinations, pursuits, follies, or wisdom of those with whom he conversed, while he had no real character of his own. In consequence of the abilities which he had displayed in the social war, he was now appointed to the government of Asia Minor, in opposition to the claims of Marius.

During the absence of Sylla, Marius, with the assistance of Sulpicius, a tribune of the people, obtained a law that Italian states should vote, not in the rear of the other

tribes, but indiscriminately with the rest. By the same law it was also enacted, that the command of the army appointed to oppose Mithridates, should be transferred from Sylla to Marius. Sylla, however, refused to obey the orders of Marius, and the army, after slaying the officers sent to supersede him, intreated their general, that he would lead them directly to execute vengeance upon all his enemies at Rome. Accordingly, Sylla, who was naturally vindictive, determined to comply; and the army, animated with the resentment of their leader, breathed nothing but slaughter and revenge. It was to no purpose, that the prætors went out from the city in form, to interdict its further progress; and, though the senate enjoined Sylla not to advance within five miles of Rome, he soon arrived with all his forces at the gates of the city, which he entered sword in hand, as into a place taken by storm (B. C. 87). Marius and his partisans fled with precipitation. Sylla repealed all the laws which had been enacted by his opponents. He also passed a decree, by which Marius, Sulpicius, and ten other leading men, were declared enemies to their country, and in consequence of which it was lawful for any person to kill them. Having thus, as he supposed, entirely restored peace to the city, he departed upon his expedition against Mithridates.

Sylla, however, had overlooked a very formidable opponent, who was daily growing into power and popularity at Rome. This was Cornelius Cinna, who, though born of a patrician family, was strongly attached to the people from motives of ambition. Rash, hot, and obstinate, but at the same time bold and enterprising, he was eager after glory, but incapable of patiently waiting its regular approach. He was ambitious to become a demagogue, because he could sway the senate. He obtained the consulship, in opposition to the influence and interests of Sylla. Endeavouring by force to procure an abrogation of the laws in favour of the patricians, a powerful body of Sylla's friends opposed him, and defeated his purpose.

Cinna then began to make levies both of troops and money, and having prevailed on the soldiers to espouse his cause, was joined by several of the senators, who had hitherto wavered in their resolution. Being summoned by the senate to take his trial for these proceedings, and not appearing, he was degraded from his rank as a law

deprived of his office of consul. What, however, was equal to an army in itself, tidings were brought, that Marius, who had escaped from a thousand perils, was with his son on the road to make common cause with Cinna. That great general, at the age of seventy, after numberless victories, and six consulates, had wandered for some time as an outcast from society, and in danger every hour of falling into the hands of his enemies. Thus encompassed with danger, he was obliged to conceal himself in the marshes of Minturnum, where he continued a whole night in a quagmire. At break of day, he left this dismal place, and made towards the sea-side, where he hoped to find a ship to facilitate his escape; but being known and discovered by some of the inhabitants, he was conducted to a neighbouring town with a halter round his neck, and, while still covered over with mud, sent to prison.

Willing to conform to the orders of the senate, the governor of the place soon after sent a Cimbrian slave to dispatch him; but when the barbarian entered the dungeon for this purpose, he stopped short, being intimidated by the dreadful visage and awful voice of the victim, who sternly demanded if he had the presumption to kill Caius Marius? Unable to reply, the slave threw down his sword, and, rushing back from the prison, declared that he found it impossible to kill him. The governor, considering the fear of the slave as an omen in favour of the unhappy exile, gave him once more his freedom, and provided him with a ship to convey him from Italy. He afterwards landed in Africa, near Carthage; and being ordered to retire by the prætor who governed there, and to whom he had been formerly kind, he desired the messenger to tell his master, that he had seen Marius sitting among the ruins of Carthage, intimating the greatness of his own fall by the desolation which was spread around him. He then embarked once more, and not knowing where to land without encountering an enemy, spent the winter at sea; and after being joined by his son, who had with difficulty escaped from the inhospitable court of an African prince, named Mandrastal, he accidentally heard of the activity of Cinna in his favour, and accordingly made the best of his way to join him. Cinna being apprised of his approach, sent his lictors, with all other marks of distinction, to receive him; but Marius would not ac-

cept of these instances of respect, which he considered as ill-suited to his abject situation. His beard was long and neglected, his pace slow and solemn, and all his actions shewed a mind strongly actuated by resentment, and meditating revenge. Marius having collected a numerous body of forces, posted himself upon Janiculum, a hill which overlooked Rome, where he was joined by Cinna, with an army as numerous as his own; and being animated with the same spirit, they resolved to lay siege to their native city.

The senate and consuls, driven almost to despair, had no other resource than submission, and sending ambassadors to the two generals, assured them of their ready acquiescence, and desired them to enter the city peaceably, and spare their country. Marius, however, massacred all who had been obnoxious to him, without pity or remorse. Several senators of the first rank were butchered in the streets, their heads placed upon the rostrum, and their bodies given to be devoured by dogs. The bloodhounds of this monster, breathing slaughter and vengeance, stabbed fathers of families in their own houses: violated the chastity of matrons; and carried away their children by force. Many, who sought to propitiate the tyrant's rage, were murdered in his presence; many, who had never offended him, were put to death; and, at last, even his own officers could not approach him without terror. Marius next abrogated all the laws which were made by his rival, and then created himself consul with Cinna. After gratifying his two favourite passions, vengeance and ambition, and having once saved his country, and now deluged it with blood, he died the month after, aged upwards of seventy years. His death would have been happy for mankind, and propitious to his own fame, had it happened at a more early period.

These melancholy accounts being brought to Sylla, he concluded a peace with Mithridates, and prepared to take vengeance on his enemies in Rome. Cinna endeavoured to oppose his return, by sending an army into Asia, to attack Mithridates, under the command of Valerius Flaccus, his colleague in the consulship; but the troops, revolting from their allegiance, deserted to join their fellow-citizens in the army of Sylla. Soon after, the ill-timed severity of Cinna produced a tumult and a mutiny through the whole army; and while he endeavoured to prevent or

appease it, he was run through the body by an unknown hand (B. C. 84.)

Sylla, after a favourable passage, landed at Brundisium, where he was joined by Cneius Pompey, afterwards surnamed the Great, and by the remains of that shattered party which had escaped the proscriptions of Marius. Italy, from one extremity to the other, soon felt all the desolations and miseries of a declared civil war. Sylla employed large sums of that money which had been plundered from the East, in extending his interests over all the country, and even among the barbarous nations of Gaul (B. C. 81). Carbo and the young Marius were chosen consuls. Both factions, exasperated to madness by mutual injuries and recriminations, gave vent to their fury in several engagements, in most of which Sylla was victorious. The forces on the side of Marius were more numerous; but those of Sylla were better united and disciplined.

A large army of the Samnites, which was headed by several Roman generals, and by Telesinus, a Samnite, who had shewn himself equal to the greatest commanders of the age, avoided the troops of Sylla, as well as those of Pompey, and marching with great expedition to Rome, attacked the city. Though the Romans fought with that animation, which the consciousness of defending every thing dear inspires, yet they became disheartened by the loss of Appius Claudius, their general, and seemed preparing for flight, when the troops of Sylla arrived to their assistance. A general and dreadful conflict ensued between the Samnite and the Roman army. The battle continued till the morning, when Sylla found himself completely victorious, and visited the field of action, on which more than fifty thousand of the vanquished and the victors lay promiscuously. Marius was found among the slain. Sylla, who had now become the undisputed master of his country, entered Rome at the head of his army. Happy would it have been, had he supported in peace the glory which he had acquired in war; or if he had ceased to live, when he ceased to conquer!

Eight thousand men, who had escaped the general carnage, having submitted to the conqueror of Rome, he caused them to be shut up in a large house in the Campus Martius, and put to death. The day after, he proscribed forty senators, and sixteen hundred knights, and, two days after that, forty senators more, with an infinite num-

ber of the richest citizens of Rome. He declared the children and the grandchildren of the opposite party infamous, and divested of the rights of freemen. He ordained by a public edict, that those who saved or harboured any of the proscribed, should suffer in their place. He set a price upon the heads of such as were thus to be destroyed, and promised two talents for every murder. States, excited by such offers, massacred their masters; and, what was more shocking, children, whose hands still reeked with the blood of their parents, came confidently to demand the wages of parricide!

The enemies of the state were not the only sufferers: Sylla permitted his very soldiers to revenge their private injuries. Riches now became dangerous to the possessor, and even the reputation of fortune was equivalent to guilt. The brother of Marius felt the most refined cruelty of the conqueror, who first caused his eyes to be plucked out deliberately, then his hands and legs to be cut off at several times, to prolong his torments; and, in this agonizing situation, he left him to expire! At the relation of such horrors, humanity sickens, and nature revolts; while piety lifts up its eyes to Heaven, and is ready to ask why such enormities are permitted to disgrace creation. These barbarities, however, were not confined to Rome: the proscription was extended to the inhabitants of many of the cities of Italy; and even whole towns and districts were ordered to be laid desolate. As rewards for their fidelity, Sylla gave these to his soldiers, who, still wanting more, excited him to new acts of cruelty. He, however, permitted Julius Cæsar, who had married the daughter of Cinna, to live, though he was heard to say, that there were many Mariuses in him. After executing these sanguinary and violent measures, he invested himself with the dictatorship, which gave an air of justice to every oppression (B. C. 80, U. C. 668). Thus the government of Rome, having passed through all the forms of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, began to settle into despotism; from which, though it made some faint struggles to be free, it never after completely extricated itself. To amuse the people, Sylla permitted them to have consuls, but took care that only his own creatures should be elected, and that all their power should be derived entirely from himself.

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When the time for determining the controversy was arrived, one of the lictors having called the party of Gracchus "factious citizens," was instantly killed. His murder caused a great disturbance in the assembly; and the senate took every method to alarm the city, by investing the consul with dictatorial power, causing the dead lictor's corse to be carried through the streets, and ordering the whole body of nobles to appear the next day, with their slaves and dependants, upon Mount Aventine. The consuls proclaimed, "that whoever would bring the head of Gracchus, or that of Flaccus his friend, should receive its weight in gold." It was to no purpose that Gracchus repeatedly sent the youngest son of Flaccus, who was yet a child, with proposals for an accommodation. The senate and the consuls, sensible of their superiority, rejected all his offers, and resolved to punish his offence with death. Gracchus fled for refuge to a grove beyond the Tiber, which had long been dedicated to the Furies; and finding himself surrounded on every side, he prevailed on his slave to kill him.

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The news of this unexpected enterprise excited the utmost terrors in Rome, and at the same instant might be seen the citizens flying into the country for safety, and the inhabitants of the country seeking shelter in the city. In this universal confusion, Pompey felt all that remorse which must necessarily arise from the remembrance of having advanced his rival to his present pitch of power. Several of his former friends were ready to accuse him of supineness, and sarcastically to reproach his ill-grounded confidence; and Cato reminded him of the many warnings which he had given him, and to which he had paid no attention. Wearied with these reproaches, which were offered under colour of advice, Pompey endeavoured to encourage and confirm his followers. He confessed, indeed, that he had been deceived in Cæsar's aims, of which he had judged only by the purity of his own; but if his friends were still inspired with the love of freedom, they might yet enjoy it. He consoled them by holding out the most flattering prospects, that his two lieutenants were at the head of a considerable army in Spain, composed of veteran troops who had made a conquest of the East; and that, besides these, there were infinite resources both in Asia and Africa, together with the succours which they might reasonably expect to receive from all the kingdoms in alliance with Rome. This representation, in some measure, revived the hopes of the confederacy. Not being in a capacity to resist Cæsar at Rome, he resolved to lead his forces to Capua, and join his two legions which were there stationed; and the greatest part of the senate, his private friends and dependents, together with all those who espoused his cause, agreed to follow him. But no words can paint the misery of the scene when he quitted Rome: ancient senators, respectable magistrates, and many of the flower of the young nobility, thus obliged to leave their native city defenceless to the invader, raised an universal concern in all ranks of people, who followed them part of the way with lamentations, tears, and vows for their success.

Cæsar being unable to bring Pompey to an accommodation, resolved to pursue him into Capua, and marched on to take possession of the cities which lay between him and his rival, without regarding Rome, which he knew would fall of course to the conqueror. Corsinium was the first city that attempted to stop the rapidity of his

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gled in some old intrenchments, fell into disorder, and great numbers of them perished. Pompey pursued his success to the very camp of Cæsar, but, fearing an ambuscade, withdrew his troops, and by this timid caution lost the empire of the world.

However, the resolution of Cæsar did not forsake him, nor his hopes fail. He found that hitherto his attempts to force Pompey to engage on equal terms were ineffectual; and he, therefore, resolved to appear as if willing to protract the war in his turn. Having called his army together, he thus addressed them with his usual composure and intrepidity: "We have no reason, my fellow soldiers, to be dejected at our late miscarriage; the loss of one battle, after such numbers as have been obtained, should awaken our caution rather than depress our resolution. let us remember the long course of victories which have been gained by us in Gaul, Britain, Italy, and Spain; and then let us consider how many greater dangers we have escaped; which have served only to increase the pleasure of succeeding victory. If after all these renowned exploits and glorious successes, one little disaster, one error of inadvertency, or indeed of destiny itself, has deprived us of our just reward, yet we have still sufficient force to ensure it for the future; and though we should be deprived of every resource, yet the brave have one still left to overcome every danger—namely, to despise it." After thus encouraging his legions, and degrading some of the subaltern officers, who had been remiss in their duty, he prepared to decamp, and to make his retreat to Apollonia, where he designed to refresh and recruit his troops. Having, therefore, sent his baggage forward, he followed at the head of his soldiers, and, though pursued by Pompey, yet having the advantage in point of time, he effected his intention. Cæsar being informed that Domitius, one of his lieutenants who was stationed in Macedonia, was in danger of being cut off by the superior force of the enemy, marched thence to his assistance, and was joined by Domitius on the frontiers of Thessaly.

The officers of Pompey being greatly elated with their recent victory, continually solicited their general to bring them to a decisive battle, and even presumed to tax the purity of his motives for procrastination. Pompey, thus assailed by men of weak heads and eager expectations,

and incessantly teased with importunities to engage, renounced his own better judgment, and, advancing into Thessaly, encamped on the plains of Pharsalia. Thither also Cæsar marched; and the approach of these two great armies, together with the greatness of the prize for which they contended, filled the minds of all with anxiety. The army of Pompey, however, which was much more numerous than that of his antagonist, seemed confident of victory, and hoped much from the justice of their cause.*

When the two armies were drawn out for battle, they continued to gaze upon each other for some time with mutual terror and dreadful serenity (B. C. 43, U. C. 705). At length the trumpets sounded, and the engagement commenced with great impetuosity. The infantry maintained the contest with equal success; but the cavalry of Pompey, which was more numerous, and on which he rested all his hopes, were totally routed, and fled in great disorder to the neighbouring mountains. Cæsar then marched to the camp of his opponent, which was bravely defended for some time; but as nothing could resist the ardour of the victorious army, the camp and trenches were at last evacuated, and the survivors escaped to the mountains. On seeing the field and camp strewn with his fallen countrymen, Cæsar appeared deeply affected at so melancholy a spectacle, and exclaimed, as if by way of justification, "They would have it so!"

Upon entering the camp of the enemy, every object presented fresh instances of the blind presumption and madness of his adversaries: in all parts were tents adorned with ivy and branches of myrtles, couches covered with purple, and side-boards loaded with plate. In short, all things exhibited the most refined luxury, and seemed rather preparatives for a banquet, or the rejoicing for a victory, than the dispositions for a battle. Thus Cæsar by his conduct gained the most complete victory in the annals of history, and, by his great clemency after the engagement, seems to have deserved it. His loss amounted only to two hundred men; whilst that of Pompey was not less than fifteen thousand. Twenty-four thousand men surrendered themselves prisoners of war, and the greatest part of them entered into Cæsar's army. The senators and Roman

* It appears, however, that Cæsar made repeated overtures of accommodation, which Pompey unfortunately refused.

knights who fell into his hands, he generously liberated, and allowed them to retire whither they pleased; and the letters which Pompey had received from several persons who wished to be thought neutral, he committed to the flames without reading them, as Pompey had done on a former occasion. After thus performing all the duties of a general and a statesman, and being determined to follow Pompey, he began his march, and arrived the same day at Larissa.

Pompey fled with precipitation, and embarking on board a vessel, steered to Lesbos, to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there, at a distance from the theatre of war. He then resolved to apply to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, to whose father he had been a considerable benefactor, and, sailing to the Egyptian coast sent to implore protection and safety. But the ministers of Ptolemy, dreading the power of Cæsar, basely determined to court his favour by the murder of his rival. Accordingly, they sent a boat to the ship of Pompey, and as soon as he was brought on shore, a Roman centurion, who had fought under his banners, stabbed him, and cutting off his head, threw the naked body on the strand, which was abandoned to every insult. However, Philip, his faithful freedman, and an old soldier who had served under Pompey in his youth, burnt the corpse, and collecting the ashes, buried them under a little rising earth, over which was afterwards placed the following inscription: "He, whose merits deserved a temple, can now scarcely find a tomb." Such was the melancholy end, and such the mean funeral of Pompey the Great, who had many opportunities of enslaving his country, but rejected them all with disdain. He is generally considered as the champion of liberty, and, therefore, the generous soul sympathizes in his fate.

Pompey was fonder of glory than of power, of praise than command, and more vain than ambitious. His talents in war were inferior only to those of Cæsar; and, it was, therefore, his peculiar misfortune to contend with a man, in whose presence all other military merit lost its lustre. It is doubtful whether, during the last war, his aims were more pure than those of Cæsar, as they could not be tried by the event; but it is certain, that he frequently rejected all offers of accommodation, and pluming himself on the superior justice of his cause, began to forge the instability of fortune, and to menace before he pos-

possessed the power. With whatever mildness he might have conducted himself in case of victory, it was impossible for him to exceed the moderation of Cæsar. Rome was become too much depraved, and too much sunk in luxury, to be any longer able to preserve its freedom; and from this period, the Roman empire could not exist without a master.

Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria, where one of the murderers presented the head and ring of his rival, in order, as he supposed, to propitiate the conqueror. Cæsar, however, had too much humanity to be pleased with so horrid a spectacle, and turning from it with disgust, gave vent to his sensibility in a flood of tears. He shortly after caused a magnificent tomb to be erected to his memory on the spot where he was murdered, and near to it built a temple, consecrated to Nemesis, the goddess who took vengeance on those who oppress the miserable.

At this time, the sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint heir by the will of her father, was ambitious of undivided authority. Cæsar, captivated by the charms of the beautiful queen, decided in her favour. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy lost his life, and Egypt was subdued by the Roman arms. Cæsar then appointed Cleopatra, with her younger brother, an infant, joint governors, according to the intent of their father's will. At length, in order to oppose Pharnaces, who had made some inroads upon the Roman dominions in the East, he resolved to leave Cleopatra, by whom he had a son, afterwards named Cæsarion, and for whom he had for a time abandoned every object of ambition. Pharnaces, who was the son of the great Mithridates, anxious to recover his paternal dominions, had seized on Armenia and Colchis. Cæsar gained a victory over him with so much ease, that, in writing to a friend at Rome, he expressed the rapidity of his conquest in three words, *Veni, vidi, vici*; *I came, I saw, I conquered*.

Cæsar, having disposed of the government of the Asiatic provinces, embarked for Italy, where he arrived sooner than his enemies could expect, but not before his affairs there absolutely required his presence. During his absence, he had been created consul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life.

But Marc Antony, who acted as his deputy at Rome, had filled the city with riot and debauchery, and several commotions ensued, which only the opportune arrival of Cæsar could have appeased. Having restored order, and confirmed his authority at home, he hastened to land in Africa, where Pompey's party had rallied under Scipio and Cato, assisted by Juba, king of Mauritania. Cæsar's good fortune still attended him; and the enemy received a complete and final overthrow near Tapsus, with little or no loss on his side. Juba and Petreus killed each other in despair; and Scipio was slain in attempting to escape into Spain. Cato shut himself up in Utica, where he meditated a brave resistance; but, finding it impossible to animate men to be free, who seemed naturally prone to slavery, he determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and deliberately fell by his own hand. Thus died Cato, who, in all but the last action of his life*, was one of the most faultless characters recorded in the Roman history. Though severe, yet he was not cruel; and he was always ready to pardon much greater faults in others, than he could forgive in himself. His haughtiness and austerity seemed the effect of principle, rather than of natural constitution, for no man was more humane to his dependents, or better loved by those about him. The constancy of his opposition to Cæsar proceeded from a thorough conviction of the injustice of his cause, and from his own unconquerable love of freedom.

The war in Africa being terminated, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome; and, as if he had abridged all his former triumphs only to increase the splendour of this, the citizens were astonished at the magnificence of the procession, and the number of the countries which he had subdued. It lasted four days: the first was for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for his victories in Asia, and the fourth for that over Juba in Africa. The people seemed eager only to find out new modes of homage, and unusual epithets of adulation, and created him *Magister Morum*, or master of the morals of the people, and gave him the title of Emperor, and Father of his Country. His person also was declared sacred; and on him alone devolved for life all the great dignities of the state. He committed the power of judi-

* As some excuse for this act, it may be alleged, that the stoics, whose tenets he followed, maintained "that life was only a gift, which might be returned to the donor, when the present was no longer grateful."

cature to the senators and the knights alone, and restrained the scandalous luxuries of the rich by sumptuary laws.

Having thus settled affairs at Rome, he found himself obliged to go into Spain, where the two sons of Pompey, and Labienus, his former general, had raised an army against him (B. C. 40, U. C. 708). He engaged them in a battle, which decided the fate of the adherents of Pompey. The elder Pompey, whose talents and filial love were remarkable, was killed in the pursuit; and the second concealed himself so completely, that the victor could not discover him.

Cæsar having by this decisive battle vanquished all his open enemies, returned to Rome, for the last time, to receive new dignities and honours, and to enjoy in his own person an accumulation of all the great offices of the state. Still, however, he affected great moderation in the enjoyment of his power: he left the consuls to be named by the people; but, as he possessed all the authority of the office, it from that time began to sink into contempt. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; rebuilt Carthage and Corinth; and undertook to level several mountains in Italy, and to drain the Pontine marshes near Rome. The senate, with an adulation which marked the degeneracy of the times, continued to load him with fresh honours, which he received with equal vanity. They called one of the months of the year after his name; they stamped money with his image; they ordered his statue to be erected in all the cities of the empire; and they talked, even in his life-time, of enrolling him in the number of their gods. But having neglected to rise from his seat one day, when the senate ordered him some particular honours, it began to be rumoured that he intended to make himself king, and that the ides of March were fixed on for investing him with the diadem. A conspiracy was, therefore, formed against him by sixty of the senators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius. Cæsar had spared the life of Brutus after the battle of Pharsalia, and heaped on him many favours.

Brutus always plumed himself on being descended from that Brutus who first gave liberty to Rome. The passion for freedom seemed to have been transmitted to him with the blood of his ancestors. But though he detested tyranny, he could not forbear loving the tyrant, from whom he had received the most signal benefits, and who was also a man in himself to be loved. However, at

length, patriotism broke all the ties of private friendship; and he entered into a conspiracy, which was to destroy his benefactor. On the other hand, Cassius was impetuous and proud, and hated the person of Cæsar still more than his cause; and he had often sought an opportunity of gratifying by assassination his revenge, which originated rather from private malignity than from public spirit.

In order to give a colour of justice to their proceedings, the conspirators delayed the execution of their designs to the ides of March, on which Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and several omens which happened about this time, in some measure began to change his intention of attending the senate. However, one of the conspirators prevailed on him to keep his resolution, by bantering his superstition, and describing the preparations made for his appearance. As he proceeded to the senate, a slave wished to inform him of the conspiracy, but could not come near him for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered to him a memorial, which Cæsar gave to his secretaries without reading it.

Cæsar, after taking his seat in the senate-house, was suddenly attacked by the conspirators, against whose daggers he bravely defended himself for some time, till seeing Brutus* in the number, he hastily exclaimed, "And you too, my son!" and covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate, and fell at the base of Pompey's statue. Thus died Cæsar in the fifty-sixth year of his age, after receiving twenty-three wounds from hands which he vainly supposed had been disarmed by his benefits, or awed by his power. In his progress and in his fate we behold all that can gratify ambition, and all that can deter tyranny.

The death of Cæsar excited in the minds of the Roman people horror and detestation against his murderers. Marc Antony and Lepidus, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to endeavour to obtain it by revenging his death. Accordingly, Antony, after reading to the people the will of Cæsar, by which he had bequeathed

* Even by those who consider Cæsar as a tyrant, the ungrateful conduct of Brutus must appear inexcusable.

them a great part of his property, made an oration over the bleeding body, exposed in the forum, and so inflamed the minds of the populace, that the murderers of Cæsar would have met with instant destruction, had they not precipitately escaped from the city. Antony, who had excited this flame in order to convert it to his own advantage, having gained the people by his zeal in the cause of Cæsar, endeavoured to bring over the senate by a seeming concern for the freedom of the state. He demanded and obtained a guard for the security of his person, and every day continued to make rapid strides to absolute power.

Antony, however, found a formidable competitor in Octavius, the grand nephew and the adopted heir of Cæsar, who at this critical period arrived at Rome, and whom, as he was afterwards surnamed Augustus, we shall henceforward designate by that title. At this time, the state was divided into three distinct factions: that of Augustus, who aimed at procuring the inheritance of Cæsar, and revenging his death; that of Antony, whose sole view was to obtain absolute power; and that of the conspirators, who endeavoured to restore the senate to its former authority, and thus to re-establish the liberty of Rome.

The senate having granted to Augustus the consulship, with powers superior to all law, he procured a decree for the condemnation of Brutus and Cassius, and to join his forces with those of Antony and Lepidus (B. C. 36). These three usurpers of their country's freedom met near Mutina, in a little island of the river Panarus, where they fixed a division of government, and determined on the fate of millions. To contemplate these men seated, without attendants, on a desolate island, marking out whole cities and nations for destruction, and yet none to oppose their designs, shews what changes may be wrought in the bravest people in a very short time, and that the age of Fabricius and Cato was no more. The result of their conference was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands, under the title of the Triumvirate, for the space of five years; that the provinces of the empire should be divided among them; and that all their enemies should be destroyed, of which each presented a list. This last article of their union deserves the bitterest execration. By it Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius; and Augustus, to his eternal infamy, sacrificed the

immortal Cicero. In this horrible proscription, three hundred senators, and above two thousand knights were put to death.

In this horrid carnage, Cicero was one of those principally sought after. For some time he evaded the malice of his pursuers, and set forward from his Tusculan villa towards the sea-side, with an intent to transport himself directly out of the reach of his enemies. He found a vessel ready, and presently embarked; but the winds being adverse, he was obliged to land, and spend the night on shore. The importunity of his servants forced him again on board, but weary of life, and declaring that he was resolved to die in that country which he had so often saved, he went on shore, and proceeded to one of his country seats in the vicinity. Here he slept soundly for some time; but his servants having heard that he was pursued, once more forced him away in a litter towards the ship. They were scarcely departed when the assassins arrived at his house, and, perceiving him to be fled, pursued him immediately towards the sea, and overtook him in a wood near the shore. They cut off his head and his hands, which they carried to Rome as the most agreeable present to Antony, their cruel employer, who received them with extreme joy, rewarded the murderer with a large sum of money, and placed Cicero's head on the rostrum, whence he had often declaimed against tyranny and oppression. Thus died Cicero in the sixty-third year of his age but not until he had seen his country ruined before him. Julius Cæsar says, "The glory which he obtained was as much above all other triumphs, as the extent of the Roman genius was above that of the bounds of the Roman empire."

Brutus and Cassius, the principal conspirators against Cæsar, after being driven from Rome, went into Greece, and persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare in the cause of freedom. Then parting, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia, and the adjacent countries, while the latter went into Syria, where he soon mustered twelve legions. In short, they soon found themselves at the head of a flourishing army, and in a condition to support a contest, on the event of which depended the empire of the world. This astonishing success in raising levies was entirely owing to the justice, moderation, and humanity of Brutus, who seemed desirous of nothing but the happiness of his country.

It was after a conference with Cassius at Sardis, that Brutus is reported to have seen a spectre in his tent. It was in the dead of night, when his fancy was probably heated, and his imagination disturbed, that he was employed in reading by a lamp just expiring. On a sudden he thought he heard a noise as if somebody entered, and looking up he saw a gigantic figure, which stood before him with a frightful aspect, and gazed on him with silent severity. At last, Brutus spoke to it: "Art thou a dæmon or a mortal man? and why comest thou to me?"—"Brutus," replied the phantom, "I am thy evil genius; thou shalt see me again at Philippi."—"Well then," answered Brutus, without being discomposed, "we shall meet again." Upon which the vision disappeared.

Antony and Augustus having advanced into Macedonia, Brutus and his colleague passed over into Thrace, and arrived at the city of Philippi, near which the forces of the triumviri were posted. The empire of the world once more depended on the fate of a battle; and all mankind regarded the approaching armies with terror and anxiety. Brutus was the only man who viewed these great events with calmness and tranquillity. "If I gain the victory," said he, "I shall restore liberty to my country; if I lose it, by dying, I shall be delivered from slavery myself: my condition is fixed; I run no risk."

The republican army consisted of eighty thousand foot and twenty thousand horse; whilst that of the triumviri amounted to one hundred thousand foot and thirteen thousand horse. Thus prepared on each side, they met and encamped near Philippi, a city on the confines of Thrace, situated upon a mountain, towards the west of which a plain stretched itself, by a gentle declivity, almost fifteen leagues, to the banks of the river Strymon. In this plain, about two miles from the town, were two little hills at a mile distant from each other, defended on one side by mountains, and on the other by a marsh which communicated with the sea. Upon these two hills, Brutus and Cassius fixed their camps, between which was kept a firm communication, and which mutually defended each other. In this commodious situation, which enabled them to give or decline a battle, the sea furnished them with all kinds of provisions, and the island of Thasos, at twelve miles distance, served them for a general magazine. On the other hand, the triumviri were encamped on the plain below, and obliged to bring

their provisions from a distance of fifteen leagues; and it was, therefore, their interest to hasten an engagement. This they offered several times; but the patriots contented themselves with drawing up their troops at the head of their camps, without descending into the plain. At length, Brutus, beginning to suspect the fidelity of some of his officers, used all his influence to persuade Cassius to engage the enemy. "I am impatient," said he, "to put an end to the miseries of mankind, and in this I have hopes of succeeding, whether I conquer or fall." Soon after, both armies, in attempting to possess themselves of the road which led towards the island of Thasos, were drawn to a general engagement, in which the republican leaders seemed to have anticipated the worst, and to have determined on a voluntary death, in case of defeat. "We may now, my friend," said Cassius, whilst he embraced Brutus, "boldly face the enemy; for we shall either be the conquerors ourselves, or exempt from the fear of those who are so." The engagement was obstinate and dreadful; but the precipitate despair of Cassius finally and fatally turned the fortune of the day against the republicans. Brutus and Cassius escaped the vengeance of the conquerors by a voluntary death, and with them expired all hopes of liberty in Rome (B. C. 35.)

The triumviri now became irresistible, and, after this decisive battle, punished those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The people chiefly lamented to see the head of Brutus sent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. The power of the triumviri being thus established on the ruin of the commonwealth, they began to think of that homage to which they had aspired. Antony went over into Greece, and thence passed into Asia, where all the monarchs of the East, who acknowledged the dominion of Rome, came to pay him their obedience, or to court his smiles. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, exacting contributions, distributing favours, and disposing of crowns with capricious insolence. But among all the sovereigns of the East, none had such a distinguished place in his regard as Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, who, having received orders from Antony to clear herself of some slight imputation of infidelity to his cause, so captivated him with her beauty and address, that aban-

doing business to satisfy his passion, he followed her into Egypt.

He remained for some time in this country, indulging in the most vicious refinements of voluptuous pleasure; but Augustus having excited the jealousy of Antony's adherents by the distribution of certain lands, he left Egypt to oppose Augustus in person. A reconciliation, however, being effected, all offences and affronts were mutually forgiven, and, to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Augustus. By a new division of the Roman empire, Augustus was to have the command of the West; Antony of the East; and Lepidus, of the provinces in Africa.

But Lepidus having incurred the displeasure of Augustus, by attempting to add Sicily to his province, he was deprived of all his former power, and banished to Circæum. Antony now alone remained to prevent Augustus from attaining sovereign and undivided power; and his character and conduct greatly facilitated the designs which his ambitious rival had conceived against him. Regardless of the business of the state, he seemed to live only to pleasure, and spent whole days and nights in the company of Cleopatra, who studied every art to increase his passion, and vary his entertainments. He proceeded even to repudiate his wife Octavia, and to marry Cleopatra.

Augustus eagerly embraced the insult offered to his sister, as a sufficient provocation for declaring war against him, and avowed his intentions to the senate. Accordingly, each side made preparations; but the conduct of Antony was so inconsistent and unwarlike, that he lost his military reputation, which had alone supported him, and began to be forsaken by his best friends, who considered him as ruined. Antony delayed his army at Samos, and afterwards at Athens, till his opponent had time to make ample and deliberate preparations for war, which was declared in form. Antony was followed by all the forces of the East; and Augustus by those of the West.

A naval battle, fought near Actium, a city of Epirus, at the entrance of the gulf of Ambracia, decided the fate of the Roman world, which became subject to a single despot. Antony ranged his ships before the mouth of the gulf; and Augustus drew up his fleet in opposition. The two land armies, on opposite sides of the gulf, were

only spectators of the engagement, and encouraged their respective fleets (B. C. 29). Antony was defeated chiefly through the treachery of Cleopatra, who fled in the midst of the battle, and whom the infatuated Antony also followed, leaving his fleet at the mercy of his opponent. At length the naval forces of Antony submitted to the conqueror, and the troops on shore following the example of the navy, yielded to Augustus without striking a blow.

Augustus advanced with an army before the city of Pelusium, of which the governor, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession without resistance, and Augustus having no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, marched thither with all expedition. Upon his arrival, Antony sallied out to oppose him, and put the enemies cavalry to flight; and this slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes, and determined him to make a resolute and final effort both by land and sea. On the evening before the day appointed for this last desperate attempt, he ordered a grand entertainment to be prepared. "Give me good wine and good cheer," said he to his friends. "let me live to-day,—to-morrow, perhaps, you may serve another master."

At break of day, Antony posted the few troops which he had left, upon a rising ground near the city, and sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. He waited with his troops to behold, and at first had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order; but his joy was soon turned into rage, when his ships only saluted those of Augustus, and both fleets uniting together, sailed back into the harbour. At the same instant, his cavalry also deserted to the enemy. However, he tried to lead on his infantry, which were easily vanquished; and he himself was compelled to return into the town. His rage was ungovernable, and he cried out in an agony, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra; and, in fact, his suspicions were just, for it was by the secret orders of the queen that the fleet had passed over to Augustus.

Antony was now so humbled, that he desired of the victor only that his life might be spared, and that he might be allowed to pass the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals, however, Augustus sent no answer. Antony having received a false report that Cleopatra was

dead, stabbed himself in the belly with his sword, and expired a short time after. Cleopatra endeavoured to propitiate Augustus; but finding that he intended to lead her as a captive in his triumph, she procured her death by an asp, which was conveyed to her in a basket of figs.

Augustus was now at the head of the most extensive empire that mankind had ever beheld. It contained in Europe, Italy, Gaul, Spain, Greece, Illyricum, Dacia, Pannonia, Britain, and some part of Germany; in Asia, all the provinces known by the name of Asia Minor, together with Armenia, Syria, Judæa, Mesopotamia, and Media; and in Africa, Egypt, Numidia, Mauritania, and Libya. The whole comprised an extent of territory between three and four thousand miles in length, and half as much in breadth.

Questions on the History of Rome.

CONSULS.

When the Tarquins were expelled, why did the Romans abolish royalty? Instead of a king, whom was it agreed that the senators should choose, and with what authority? Who were the first Consuls in Rome? What conspiracy was formed in favour of Tarquin, and how was it defeated? Who were in the number of the conspirators, how were they punished; what was the conduct of Brutus, and what that of Collatinus?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to assist him, what was the issue of the conflict; how died Brutus, and what was his character?

What was the nature of the laws enacted by Valerius, and when was an appeal to the people allowed? Who was chosen with Valerius to the consulship?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to espouse his cause, what was the nature of the attack on Rome, and by whom was the army of Porsenna prevented from entering the city? What induced Porsenna to retire from the Roman territory, and what did his soldiers leave behind in the camp?

What were still the feelings of Tarquin, and whom, and at what time, did he excite to espouse his interest? Why did the poorer classes complain, and when in debt to what were they reduced?

What modes of subsisting had the Romans under their kings? After the expulsion of the Tarquins, what did the senators and patricians appropriate to themselves? what was the condition of the soldier, and what the consequence of his borrowing money? and what did this complication of misery produce?

Which of the people, and for what reasons, refused to enlist in order to oppose Tarquin, and in this exigence, to what expedient had the senate recourse? To what was this expedient in time fatal? Who was created the first Dictator; who was eligible to the office, how long did it last, and what were the powers with which he was invested? What were the restrictions to which he was subject? How was Titus Lartius as

dictator surrounded, did he complete the levies, and when did he lay down the dictatorship?

Was there a necessity for a dictator the next year, and who was created? What actions did Posthumius perform? Whither did Turpin retire, and where and at what age did he die? When did Posthumius lay down his authority?

What excited fresh murmurs among the soldiers? To what office did the senate choose Appius Claudius, and what was his character? What was the character of his colleague Servilius? When the complaints of the people were under deliberation, what were the sentiments expressed by Servilius, and what those by Appius?

What was the conduct of the citizens towards Servilius and Appius respectively? What did the people meditate, and what spectacle roused them into fury?

How did the old Roman soldier appear in the midst of the people assembled? By whom, and for what, was he remembered? In addressing the people, what was the speech which he uttered? After concluding his speech, what did he shew to the people?

What was the effect produced on the people? What did Appius? What Servilius, and what did he promise and proclaim?

What was the effect produced by the conduct of Servilius? What effect on the people was produced by the report that the Volscians were marching towards Rome? What did they resolve, and did they refuse to enlist? How did Servilius prevail on the people, and what was the conduct of Appius? Why was the senate obliged to create a dictator, what did he promise, and who caused the promise to be broken?

In consequence of the reiterated breaches of faith, what line of conduct did the people adopt, and to what had they retired? What effect was produced on the senate by the proceedings of the people? How were the ambassadors received by the soldiers, and by whom were the grievances debated? What was the fable which Menenius Agrippa addressed to the people, and which is related by Livy?

What effect had this fable on the minds of the people, and what officers did Lucius Junius suggest should be annually created?

What magistrates did the senate allow the people to choose, what was their names, how were they chosen, and what was their number? From what were the Tribunes of the people exempted, and what were their privileges? What was the nature of the office of Tribunes, how did they annul the decrees of the senate, and what was their power? How far did their authority extend, and what power had one over the others? What edict did the senate now send forth, and what did the people?

Against what had the senate now to contend? What was the first advantage of the tribunes, from whom were the *Ediles* chosen, and why so called, and what was the nature of their office?

Who was Coriolanus, and how did he regard the encroachments of the tribunes? When an assembly was convened, in consequence of Rome being threatened with a famine, what law was passed in favour of the tribunes, and what was the effect of that law on the deliberations? On what did Coriolanus insist, and what speech did he make to the assembly? What effect had this speech on the multitude, and to what was he condemned by the tribunes?

How was Coriolanus rescued? For what was he summoned before the assembly of the people? By what were his auditors inclined to relent? What accusation did Decius bring against him? What was the reply of Coriolanus? and to what punishment was he condemned?

By whom was Coriolanus attended when he left Rome? to whom did

he apply? and how was he received by Tullus Attius? Of whom were Tullus and Coriolanus appointed generals? When they invaded the Roman territories, whose lands did they lay waste? After taking the towns one after another, where did Coriolanus pitch his camp?

How were the people and the senate each affected? Did Coriolanus invest the city of Rome, what proposals did the senate and the people offer him, and how were the deputies received by Coriolanus?

What did Coriolanus demand from the deputies, on the part of the Volscians? What did he observe with regard to himself? What time did he allow the deputies for their determination? and how did he employ the intermediate space?

What effect was produced by another embassy from Rome? How was the answer received in the city? what was another deputation, consisting of the pontiffs, the priests, and augurs, sent to beseech? and did Coriolanus relax in his demands? Did the people now fear for the commonwealth, and to what had they recourse? What other means for softening Coriolanus were now suggested? Were Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, and his wife Volturna, with other matrons, joined in another embassy, and what effect was produced?

What was the speech which Veturia made to Coriolanus? What answer did Coriolanus return to his mother? What effect did this lenity produce in regard to himself, and how was he honoured at Rome? What was the character of Coriolanus? Where was a temple to Female Fortune erected? What was the end of Tullus?

What was the character of Spurius Cassius Viscellinus, and to what did he aspire? What means did he use to gain the regal power, and from what source sprang the famous Agrarian law? Why was Cassius ordered to appear before the assembly of the people, and to what punishment was he condemned?

Did the people become urgent for the Agrarian law, and how long and by what means was it deferred? What did the family of the Fabii offer, when the people would not enlist, and to whom are this family worthy to be compared? How many of this family were cut off?

What was the number of the Roman citizens at this period, and what did the increase of the people tend only to advance? How were the magistrates elected, and afterwards treated? In what sum of money was Menenius fined, and what was his fate?

Of what were Manlius and Fabius accused before the people? What produced a ferment in the city, and how was it allayed? For what was Volero, a centurion, ordered by the consuls to be stripped and scourged? what did this severity redouble, and afterwards produce? what did the multitude? and what was Volero soon after created?

On what did the demagogue Volero resolve, and to what was the latter law particularly injurious? What was the difference when the people voted by curiæ or centuries, and when by tribes? Did the senate oppose this innovation? what was the law which was passed? in whom was now vested the supreme authority; and into what was the Roman constitution converted?

Did Appius Claudius, son of the former Appius, concur in this new concession, and why did the Romans flee before the Volscians? What punishment did Appius inflict on those who had fled or quitted their ranks? Why was Appius ordered to appear before the people, and what was his fate?

What did the tribunes soon after assert, and by whom was the demand opposed? Why was Cæso summoned before the people, and to what was

his father Quintius Cincinnatus reduced, in order to reimburse the sum for his son?

Of what place did Herdonius, a Sabine general, obtain possession? From what did the tribunes dissuade the people? By whom was the capitol retaken? Whom did the senate appoint to the vacant consulate, and what did Quintius Cincinnatus say to his wife at his departure? Whom did he blame, how did he perform the duties of consul, and when did he lay down his office?

What drew Cincinnatus again from his tranquil retreat, and to what office was he now appointed? Where did the messengers find him, what passed between them, and how did he leave the companions of his toil?

What effect had this dignity on Cincinnatus? Whom did he nominate master of the horse? Who was Tarquinius, and what was his character, and on whom devolved the saving of a great nation?

When the dictator entered the city, what did he entreat? After putting himself at the head of the troops, whither did he march, and at what were the Æqui astonished? After a furious engagement, what terms did the Æqui offer, and to what did Cincinnatus oblige them? In what terms did he address the army which he had saved, and with what was Cincinnatus presented? When did he resign the dictatorship, and whither did he retire?

To what number did the people demand that the tribunes should be increased? For what reason did Cincinnatus recommend to the senate an acquiescence in this measure? What did the tribunes soon after order and also require, and was the Agrarian law again agitated?

Who was Siccius Dentatus, and what was his character? How did he describe his hardships and his services? What reward had he received? Did this hard and lamentable case occasion the passing of the Agrarian law? By what means was this law put off for the present?

What restored peace in some measure to the republic? and by what means did Siccius Dentatus gain greater honours than the consul who obtained the victory? What did Dentatus on the return of the army, and what law did he procure? How was the patrician interest diminished, what were their honours becoming, and what was likely to happen to their very possessions?

For what was a written body of laws now wished? Why was this called the Ærentan law, what public attention did it excite, and what formed the basis of this system? Whither were ambassadors sent to procure laws? Who were the senators fixed on for this purpose, what did they bring home, and what constituted the laws of the twelve Tables?

After the ambassadors returned, what did the tribunes require, and who were the persons chosen to digest the collected laws into proper form? What form was the constitution now at once to assume, and what dreadful experiment was about to be tried?

What power were the decemviri to enjoy, and how long was that power to continue? How did the decemviri agree to exercise the government, and whom, and for what purpose, was a petty officer, called Accensus, to precede? After labouring for a year, what body of laws did they form?

Why did the decemviri entreat the senate to continue their appointment, and of whom did Appius compose the college? What vows did the decemviri make among themselves, and in what manner did each of them appear in public? What did the decemviri become, and into what were the forms of justice converted? What tables of laws did they add to the former ten, and by what name is that celebrated code known?

In these last tables, what particular law was introduced, and for what purpose? Why did the people endure their designs with patience? How long did the decemviri continue themselves in their office, and what was their conduct? What was the state of the city, and how were the decemviri guarded?

When the Æqui and the Volsci made their incursions, what means did the decemviri adopt for stopping them? On this occasion, what said Valerius and Marcus Horatius, and with what did Appius threaten the latter? What roused the whole body of senators, and how were they appeased?

After granting a forced sanction to tyranny, how were the senate treated, and how was the army employed? What method had the Roman soldiers lately adopted of punishing the generals whom they disliked, and how did they act on this occasion? How were the tidings of defeat received in Rome?

For what did Appius mark out Siccius Dentatus, and whither was the latter sent as legate? Whither was he then dispatched, and by whom was he accompanied? What was the fate of this brave man, and how did the decemviri pretend to commiserate his death?

By whose charms was Appius smitten whilst sitting on his tribunal, and what means did he adopt to gain his purpose?

How did Claudius conduct himself in this business? whither did he lead Virginia? what did he assert concerning her? and what did he require?

What did the vile decemvir adjudge concerning Virginia? how was the sentence received by the multitude? and what was the conduct of Icilius, her lover?

Why did Appius suspend his judgment, and what, in the mean time, did he endeavour to prevent? Did Virginius appear before the tribunal of Appius? in whose favour did the latter decree, and what was the permission which Virginius entreated?

When Virginius took his daughter Virginia in his arms, what did he say to her, before he plunged the weapon to her heart? and what did he afterwards say to Appius? What did Virginius call on the people to do, and whither did he then go?

What did Virginius implore the soldiers to redeem? where did the army once more take their station? and whence originated the military tribunes? What did Appius attempt to quell; whom did he convene, and what did the senate refuse? What offer did the senate make to the army and was the decemvirate abolished? Who were elected consuls, and who received into the number of the tribunes? What was the fate of Appius and Oppius, of the rest of the decemviri, and of Claudius?

Whom, and in what, were the tribunes preparing to exceed? at what did the senate begin to tremble, and how were their fears quelled by Duilius?

What law did the consuls procure, and what were the effects of that law? How did the two orders of the state act towards each other? and what effect was produced by the creation and abolition of the decemviri?

What did these intestine tumults procure, and whither did the Æqui and the Volsci make incursions? How did the justice of the Romans appear? and in what manner did the people of Rome decide respecting some lands, between the inhabitants of Ardea and Aricia?

What two laws did the tribunes propose, and which of them did the senate refuse? How were the Military Tribunes chosen, what was

their number, and what were their power and authority? How long did this institution continue?

What office was created to assist the consuls, and in what did their business consist? Who were the first two Censors?

By what means did Spurius Maelius attempt to usurp the sovereignty, and by whom was the country rescued from impending danger?

What effect was produced by factions, and when did the Roman army first embroil their hands in the blood of their general? What expedient did the senate adopt for extending their power, and how was it successful? What gave a new turn to the Roman mode of warfare, and what effect was produced on the Roman soldiers?

Why did the senate undertake the siege of Veii, and how long did the siege continue? Who was created dictator, and what actions did Furus Camillus perform? What was the nature of the triumph of Camillus, and why did it create disgust?

Whom did Camillus afterwards rout, and what took place at the siege of Faleri? What answer did Camillus return to the school-master, who offered to put his scholars into the hands of the Romans?

How did Camillus cause him to be sent into the town, and what was the effect produced by this generous behaviour? Of what was Camillus accused by the tribunes, and whither did he retire?

Where, and when, had the Gauls settled, and what had allured them from their native country? What did they, wherever they came, and what was their personal and moral character? By whom were they invited into Italy, and under whom did a body of them besiege Clusium, a city of Etruria? Whose assistance did the Clusians entreat, and why did Brennus march to attack Rome?

Where did the Romans and Gauls meet, and what was the name of the engagement? How many of the former returned to Rome, and whither did the inhabitants retire? What was the conduct of the ancient senators and priests?

When did Brennus enter Rome, and what conduct did the senators observe? By what was the barbarous enemy awed into reverence, and how did the Gauls regard these old men? What caused a general slaughter of the senators, and what did Rome become?

How long had the siege of the capitol continued, when a messenger arrived from their friends without? How did Portius Comminus reach the capitol, and what tidings did he bring?

How did the Romans receive the offer of Camillus, and how did the messenger effect his return?

How did Brennus try to reduce the citadel, and by what were the garrison awakened, when the enemy attempted to surprise the capitol? What was the agreement by which the invaders were to quit the city and territories of Rome; what was the conduct of Brennus when the gold was weighed, and what did Camillus order, and what effect?

What was the state of Rome, and whither did the tribunes of the people urge its removal? To what did Camillus persuade the Romans, what effects were produced by his arguments, and from what did Rome quickly spring?

How, and for what, was Manlius rewarded? To what did he aspire, and whom did the senate appoint dictator? After Cornelius Cossus had laid down his office, how did the populace treat Manlius, and how did Manlius conduct himself? What did Camillus appoint, why did the multitude refuse to co-operate with the accusers of Manlius, and to

what did they at length condemn him? What was done to his house, and what name was his family forbidden to assume?

Against whom did Camillus and Lucius Furius march, and what was the conduct of the latter? How did Camillus prevent the defeat of the army, what said he to those who fled, and what was the issue of the engagement? With what did Camillus return to Rome, and what prevailed at home?

By whom was the people excited to assert their right to the consulate, and what did the senate forbid Camillus? Why was Camillus arrested, and conducted to prison, and what cry did the people set up? What law was passed by the advice of Camillus, from whom was a prætor created, what station was he considered to hold, and what were his functions? What other officers were also created, and what were their duties?

When, and at what age, died Camillus, and with what reputation? What were his character and achievements?

Why did Curtius leap with his horse and armour into the midst of the gulf, and what do historians assert was the consequence?

Over whom had the Romans already triumphed, when they turned their arms against the Samnites?

Who were the Samnites, where did they inhabit, and how were they powerful? For what, and by whom, was the assistance of the Romans sought against the Samnites?

Whither was Valerius sent, and whither marched Cornelius, his colleague? Did the fortune of Rome prevail, and what did Capua receive?

Why did the Latins and the Campanians revolt, and on what did the Latins insist? Why did Decius Mus resolve to devote himself to his country, what was the issue of the engagement, and where was it fought? When was Pædum taken, and what was the fate of the Latins?

In the preceding battle between the Romans and the Latins, how were the strict discipline and amazing patriotism of the former displayed, and what orders did Manlius, the consul, issue? Whom did Metius, the general of the cavalry of the Latins, challenge to single combat, and by whom was the challenge accepted? What was the issue of the combat?

What said Titus Manlius when he returned to the tent of the consul his father, and what reply did his father make? What did the consul order the lictor, and what was the fate of Titus Manlius? How was this decree heard by the army, and how did they express their sensations? How was the dead body of the young champion buried?

What renewed the war between the Samnites and the Romans, and with what only was it to terminate? Whither did Pontius, the general of the Samnites, decoy the Romans, and who, says Livy, could not have delivered them? How did Pontius punish the Roman army, and for what did he also stipulate?

How was this calamity felt in Rome, and why was the war renewed? By whom were the Samnites, by turns, assisted, and to what effect?

Whom did the Italian states call to their assistance, and what was the character of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and of the troops which he commanded? With what armament did Pyrrhus put to sea, and with what did he land in Italy?

What did Pyrrhus observe to be the manners of the people of Tarentum, and with what were the inhabitants occupied? What orders did

he used, how did he attempt to repress their licentiousness, and by what was he prevented from punishing some who had ridiculed him?

What reply did the consul Lævinus make to the king of Epirus, when the latter offered his mediation? Where did the two hostile armies approach each other, and what was the conduct of Pyrrhus in the engagement, and of the Greeks and the Romans? Whether did the Greek phalanx, or the Roman legion, appear preferable? In whose favour was the engagement at length decided, and what was the observation of Pyrrhus?

What was the conduct of the Romans after this defeat, and what did of Pyrrhus? Whom, and by what means, did Cineas attempt to influence?

How did the virtues of the Romans at this time appear, and from what did the senators now seek distinction? What mode of attack did Cineas now adopt, and what was the nature of his speech in the Roman senate? What offers did he make in the name of his master, and how was the proposal received?

Who was Appius Claudius, and how was he regarded by the senate? What was his opinion on the offer of peace, and what effect was produced in the assembly by his speech?

What did the senate require of Pyrrhus before they would treat of peace, and what said Cineas of the Romans to his master?

What did the Roman generals apply themselves to imitate? Where did both armies meet, and what was the issue of the engagement? What said Pyrrhus on being congratulated on his victory?

With what did the next season begin, what letter was brought to Fabricius the consul, and what did Fabricius on the occasion?

How did Pyrrhus receive the message from Fabricius, and what did he say? How did Pyrrhus act? What was the conduct of the Romans? On what pretext did Pyrrhus withdraw from Italy?

On what pretence did Pyrrhus leave Sicily, and return to Tarentum? On this occasion, what severity did the Roman consuls employ, and how was it successful?

In a general engagement between the Greeks and the Romans, to what recourse again had Pyrrhus, and what was the effect produced? In whose favour did victory declare, and when Pyrrhus bade an eternal adieu to Italy, why did he leave a garrison in Tarentum? How did the Romans treat Tarentum?

Of what countries did Rome become mistress, and what treatment did the different states experience? How were the different degrees of honours, privileges, and liberty founded, and how were they afterwards modified or increased?

Why did the Romans secretly wish for the possession of Sicily, and what only did the Carthaginians want to become masters of the whole island? On what account commenced the first Punic war?

By what means did Appius Claudius waft over a small body of forces into Sicily, and what obstacle opposed the ambitious views of the Romans? On what plan did the Romans build one hundred and twenty vessels, and where were they first taught to row, and how instructed in naval engagements? What success had the consul Duilius with this newly constructed armament?

What islands and cities did the Romans subdue, and what did they consider necessary for obtaining the conquest of Sicily? Whither, for what purpose, and with what fleet, were Regulus and Manlius sent?

What was the character of Regulus? Why was he unwilling to accept this commission, and what excuse did he write to the senate? By

what means did the senate obviate the difficulty, and with what fleet and number of men did the two generals set sail?

With what fleet were they met by the Carthaginians, and what was the issue of the engagement? Where did the Romans make a descent, and what city did they capture?

Whither was Manlius ordered by the senate, and under what title was Regulus continued in Africa? What was the issue of an engagement between the Carthaginians and the Romans, why did the former endeavour to obtain a peace, and how was the treaty broken off? What general did the Carthaginians obtain from Sparta, and with what loss were the Romans defeated?

With what were the inhabitants of Carthage filled, on account of this victory, and how did they regard Xantippus? Why did Xantippus resign his command, and desire a ship to convey him to his own country? What was the conduct of the Carthaginians on this occasion, and what private orders did they give to the mariners? Whence originated the terms "Punic faith" and "Punic reward," and what do they signify?

What was the state of the Carthaginian and Roman affairs, and what city were the Romans ultimately obliged to evacuate? How did the Romans lose their whole fleet, and into whose hands fell Agrigentum? What marked the character of the Romans, and how did they lose the greatest part of another fleet? In what did the Romans give up all hopes of rivalling the Carthaginians for a while, and to what did they direct all their attention?

Whom, and for what reason, did the Carthaginians send to Rome to negotiate a peace, and what promise did they exact from him? What advice did Regulus give to the Roman senate, and what did some of that body endeavour to persuade him? What was the reply of Regulus, and what his punishment after his return to Carthage? How did the senate of Rome retaliate for this cruelty, and how are such acts of retaliation to be regarded?

Did Rome grant peace to the Carthaginians, and on what conditions? When was the temple of Janus shut for the second time, and what had the Romans an opportunity of cultivating?

Who were the first people on whom the Romans next tried their strength? what was the occasion of the war with the Illyrians? and what the nature of the peace concluded?

What country did the Gauls enter, and whither advance? How, and with what loss, were they defeated? On what conditions were the Gauls forced to beg a peace?

How did the Carthaginians violate the treaty which they had made? Of what were ambassadors sent from Rome to Carthage to complain, and what did they demand? How did the embassy terminate? To whom did the Carthaginians intrust the command of their army, and who was Hannibal?

What did Hannibal swear on the altar, and what were the character and abilities of this wonderful man?

What expectations did the Carthaginians form of Hannibal, and were they realized? After over running all Spain, whither did he resolve to carry the war, and with what army did he cross the Pyrenean mountains into Gaul? With what forces did he find himself in the plains of Italy?

Whom did the senate send to oppose Hannibal, and where did Scipio engage the Carthaginians? What was the issue of the battle, and with what loss was the Roman army routed under Sempronius, the other consul?

only spectators of the engagement, and encouraged their respective fleets (B. C. 29). Antony was defeated chiefly through the treachery of Cleopatra, who fled in the midst of the battle, and whom the infatuated Antony also followed, leaving his fleet at the mercy of his opponent. At length the naval forces of Antony submitted to the conqueror, and the troops on shore following the example of the navy, yielded to Augustus without striking a blow.

Augustus advanced with an army before the city of Pelusium, of which the governor, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession without resistance, and Augustus having no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, marched thither with all expedition. Upon his arrival, Antony sallied out to oppose him, and put the enemies' cavalry to flight; and this slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes, and determined him to make a resolute and final effort both by land and sea. On the evening before the day appointed for this last desperate attempt, he ordered a grand entertainment to be prepared. "Give me good wine and good cheer," said he to his friends, "let me live to-day,—to-morrow, perhaps, you may serve another master."

At break of day, Antony posted the few troops which he had left, upon a rising ground near the city, and sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. He waited with his troops to behold, and at first had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order; but his joy was soon turned into rage, when his ships only saluted those of Augustus, and both fleets uniting together, sailed back into the harbour. At the same instant, his cavalry also deserted to the enemy. However, he tried to lead on his infantry, which were easily vanquished; and he himself was compelled to return into the town. His rage was ungovernable, and he cried out in an agony, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra; and, in fact, his suspicions were just, for it was by the secret orders of the queen that the fleet had passed over to Augustus.

Antony was now so humbled, that he desired of the victor only that his life might be spared, and that he might be allowed to pass the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals, however, Augustus sent no answer. Antony having received a false report that Cleopatra was

dead, stabbed himself in the belly with his sword, and expired a short time after. Cleopatra endeavoured to propitiate Augustus; but finding that he intended to lead her as a captive in his triumph, she procured her death by an asp, which was conveyed to her in a basket of figs.

Augustus was now at the head of the most extensive empire that mankind had ever beheld. It contained in Europe, Italy, Gaul, Spain, Greece, Illyricum, Dacia, Pannonia, Britain, and some part of Germany; in Asia, all the provinces known by the name of Asia Minor, together with Armenia, Syria, Judæa, Mesopotamia, and Media; and in Africa, Egypt, Numidia, Mauritania, and Libya. The whole comprised an extent of territory between three and four thousand miles in length, and half as much in breadth.

Questions on the History of Rome.

CONSULS.

When the Tarquins were expelled, why did the Romans abolish royalty? Instead of a king, whom was it agreed that the senators should choose, and with what authority? Who were the first Consuls in Rome? What conspiracy was formed in favour of Tarquin, and how was it defeated? Who were in the number of the conspirators, how were they punished, what was the conduct of Brutus, and what that of Collatinus?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to assist him, what was the issue of the conflict, how died Brutus, and what was his character?

What was the nature of the laws enacted by Valerius, and when was an appeal to the people allowed? Who was chosen with Valerius to the consulship?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to espouse his cause, what was the nature of the attack on Rome, and by whom was the army of Porsenna prevented from entering the city? What induced Porsenna to retire from the Roman territory, and what did his soldiers leave behind in the camp?

What were still the feelings of Tarquin, and whom, and at what time, did he excite to espouse his interest? Why did the poorer classes complain, and when in debt to what were they reduced?

What modes of subsisting had the Romans under their kings? After the expulsion of the Tarquins, what did the senators and patricians appropriate to themselves? what was the condition of the soldier, and what the consequence of his borrowing money? and what did this complication of misery produce?

Which of the people, and for what reasons, refused to enlist in order to oppose Tarquin; and in this exigence, to what expedient had the senate recourse? To what was this expedient in time fatal? Who was created the first Dictator, who was eligible to the office, how long did it last, and what were the powers with which he was invested? What were the restrictions to which he was subject? How was Titus Lartius an

only spectators of the engagement, and encouraged their respective fleets (B. C. 29). Antony was defeated chiefly through the treachery of Cleopatra, who fled in the midst of the battle, and whom the infatuated Antony also followed, leaving his fleet at the mercy of his opponent. At length the naval forces of Antony submitted to the conqueror, and the troops on shore following the example of the navy, yielded to Augustus without striking a blow.

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did Gracchus propose that the money should be divided? What did he intimate by putting his hand to his head, and to what was his meaning perverted? What was the fate of Tiberius Gracchus?

What was the character of Caius Gracchus, the brother of Tiberius, and how came he to offer himself for the tribuneship? Whom did he cite before the people, and what edict did he procure? What did he cause to be scrutinized, what law was enacted, and what did it effect? What were the character and abilities of Caius Gracchus, and to what did he seem to be born?

Was Gracchus again chosen to the tribuneship, and whom did he senate set up as a rival? What was the conduct of Drusus, and how did he obtain the confidence of the people? Did Gracchus shew any jealousy, and what was the consequence?

What was the greatest effort to ruin Gracchus? As one of the tribunes, to determine the quantity of land possessed by each individual, what did he endeavour to regulate? Why, and by whom, was Scipio Africanus had recourse to? and to settle what did Scipio obtain Tuditanus, the consul, to be chosen? By what means did Tuditanus defer the settlement of the lands, and for what was Scipio cited to appear? When was Scipio found dead, and did it appear that he had been strangled?

Against whom did the death of this great man produce much suspicion, and what was the conduct of the populace towards Gracchus when he returned from Carthage? To what effect did he design new laws in favour of the people, and was he refused the tribuneship? Whom did the senate depute to be the instrument of their malignity against Gracchus, and what laws did Opimus proceed to abrogate?

How was the consul guarded, and in what manner did he treat Gracchus? Did the latter wear arms for his defence, and how acted his friend Flaccus?

At the time of determining the controversy, what was done to one of the lictors, and what did this murder occasion? What method did the senate take to alarm the city, and what did the consuls proclaim? When Gracchus sent the young son of Flaccus to propose an accommodation, what was the effect produced? Whither fled Gracchus for refuge, and what was his fate?

When died Gracchus, and what were the characters of him and his brother? How was the senate now distinguished from the rest of the people, and by what did they rule the commonwealth? Under what domination had the empire fallen, and what appears the government of Rome from this period till the despotism of Augustus?

At what new dominions did the Romans avariciously grasp? Who was Jugurtha, and whom did he murder? What was the Roman senate influenced to decree, and did Jugurtha murder also Adherbal? What was the conduct of the senate, and what that of the consul sent to execute justice?

For what did the people now procure a decree, in what manner did Jugurtha appear, and what was his conduct? Who was sent to traverse his designs, and what befel the army under Aulus?

Who was Caius Marius and to whom did he act as lieutenant in Numidia? How did he obtain the consulship, and did he conquer Jugurtha? What were the birth, qualities, and character of Marius, and how did he regard the senate?

Who threatened Italy with slaughter and devastation, and who was sent against them? Who were these people, and for what had they left their forests? Did Marius defeat these barbarians?

What did Marius become by these victories, and how did he effect the banishment of Metellus, his first patron and promoter?

What produced the social war, and how was it terminated? Did the allied states acquire much weight in the constitution?

Against whom did the senate now turn their arms, and what did the power and riches of Mithridates invite? Who was appointed to conduct the Asiatic war, and what was the family of Sylla? What were the manners, character, and conduct of Sylla, and to what could he adapt himself? To what government was he now appointed, in opposition to Marius?

During the absence of Sylla, what law did Marius obtain, and did Sylla refuse to obey the orders of Marius? At the request of the army, whither did Sylla lead them, and in what manner did he enter Rome? What became of Marius? What laws did Sylla repeal, decree what did he pass, and whither did he depart?

Whom had Sylla overlooked, and what were the birth and character of Cornelius Cinna? How did Cinna obtain the consulship, and by whom was he prevented from abrogating the laws in favour of the patricians?

What did Cinna then begin to levy, and for what was he deprived by the senate of his office of consul? Who was reported to be coming to join Cinna, and what had been the fortunes of Marius? How did Marius conceal himself near Minturnum, and whither was he carried when taken?

Whom did the governor of the place send to kill Marius, and what was the result? Why did the governor grant Marius his freedom, and where did Marius land? What did he say to the prætor who ordered him to retire, and where did he spend the winter? How came he to think of joining Cinna, and how did Cinna go to receive him? What was the abject appearance of Marius; where did he post himself; by whom was he joined; and what did Marius and Cinna resolve?

What was the conduct of the senate and consuls, and what the excessive cruelty of Marius and his adherents? What laws did Marius abrogate, and with whom did he create himself consul? After gratifying what did he die, and what would his death have been if it had happened more early?

What did Sylla prepare to do, and how did Cinna endeavour to oppose his return to Rome? What did the troops who were sent against Mithridates, and what was the fate of Cinna?

Where landed Sylla, and by whom was he joined? What felt Italy, and what was the conduct of Sylla? Who were chosen consuls, and how did the factions give vent to their fury? What was the character of the forces of young Marius, and of those of Sylla?

How and under whom did the Samnites attack Rome, and who arrived to the assistance of the Romans? What was the issue of the conflict between the Samnite and the Roman army, and how did Sylla enter Rome? What would it have been if Sylla had now acted differently, or if he had ceased to live?

What was the conduct of Sylla towards those who submitted, and whom did he proscribe? Of what other acts of cruelty and barbarity was Sylla guilty, and what did slaves and children?

What did Sylla permit his soldiers to revenge, and what did riches now become? How did Sylla treat the brother of Marius, and what are the feelings of humanity and piety? Whither was the proscription extended, and to what did the soldiers excite Sylla? Whom did Sylla permit to

live, and what said he of Julius Cæsar? With what did Sylla now invest himself? Into what did the government of Rome begin to settle, and did it ever after extricate itself? How did Sylla permit the consuls to be chosen, and with what power?

What did Sylla add to the senate, and what to the body of the people? Did Sylla quit his power, and whom did he constitute judges of his conduct?

After divesting himself of his office, how was he followed by the people, and by whom was he reproached? What was the observation of Sylla?

By what motives was Sylla induced to abdicate the dictatorship?

Did Sylla expect that the people would voluntarily confer on him the power which he relinquished? How long did he survive his abdication, and what implied the epitaph which he made?

What took place on the death of Sylla, and what were the intentions and success of Catulus and Lepidus, the two consuls?

Who still remained in Spain, and what was the character of Sertorius? How had Sertorius been treated by Sylla, and where did the former find a refuge and by whom was he joined? How long did he sustain a war against the Roman state, and whom did the senate send to the assistance of Metellus?

Did Sertorius begin to meditate the invasion of Italy, and how were his schemes baffled? How, and by whom, was Sertorius murdered? What was the consequence to his party, and to Perpenna? When Perpenna offered to put into the hands of Pompey all the papers of Sertorius, what was the conduct of Pompey, and did it ease the people of their fears?

How was Pompey now regarded at Rome? What did he perform in his passage across the Alps, and how did he pluck up the war by the roots? Was this the termination of the civil wars excited by Marius and Sylla, and what was the conduct of each party?

What had entered the state, and what had the example of Sylla shewn? In what favour with the public were Pompey and Crassus held? How were they alike, and in what different? What did each wish to do, and for what purpose? How did Crassus endeavour to obtain the favour of the people, and what did Pompey for the same purpose? What did each give to his private aims?

What did the arts of Pompey seem to give him, and what law was passed in his favour? How did Pompey conduct the war against Mithridates, king of Pontus?

What did Pompey propose to Mithridates, and on what did the latter determine? Whither did Mithridates design to pursue the Romans, and to what was he obliged? Where did Pompey overtake Mithridates, and what was the issue of the engagement which followed?

Whither fled Mithridates, and by whom was he pursued? Whither then did Mithridates continue his journey, and whom did he induce to declare against Rome? What did he project in the heart of Asia, and how and by whom was he prevented from executing his designs? What did his unnatural son Pharnaces now inform him, and what was the fate of Mithridates? How long did Mithridates oppose Rome, and where did he continually find resources?

What did Pompey soon after achieve, and to what did he oblige Darius king of Media, Antiochus king of Syria, and Phraates king of Parthia? To what did he reduce all Syria and Pontus, and after what time did he take the temple of Jerusalem? What was his conduct in the Holy of Holies?

With what triumph was Pompey honoured, and in it what names of kingdoms, cities, and castles, were enumerated as acknowledging the empire of Rome? Who appeared among the prisoners led in triumph; what were the treasures brought home, and what the trophies and splendours of the procession? To what did all these victories serve, and what was the commonwealth now become?

While Pompey was pursuing his conquests abroad, by what means was Rome at the verge of ruin? Who was Sergius Cataline, and what were his character and conduct? Why did he become enraged, and breathe only revenge, and what did he lay before the conspirators? On what did the conspirators resolve?

What was effected by the vigilance of Marcus Tullius Cicero, the great Roman orator? Whither did Cataline hasten, and what was the fate of the conspirators in the city?

Whither did Cataline attempt to escape, and how was he prevented? What was the issue of an engagement, and how fell Cataline and his whole army? What thanks were decreed to Cicero, what was he styled by Cato, and did the people confirm the justice of the decree? When does the glory of Cicero appear to have been at its height, and how did he behave during the existence of the conspiracy?

Who was now the most powerful man in the state, and of what did Pompey seem desirous? Who was next to Pompey in authority, and what had Pompey and Crassus been long disunited?

On what did Julius Cæsar resolve, and from whom was he descended? Whose side did he espouse? What had his services in Spain deserved? How did he resolve to attach to him Pompey and Crassus, and how was the combination formed? To what did the First Triumvirate subject the constitution, and to what did it pave the way?

At this period, of what different bodies was the commonwealth composed? At what did the triumvirate aim, what was the conduct of the senate, and what that of the people?

Whom did the senate give Cæsar for a colleague, and for what purpose? How did Cæsar endeavour to ingratiate himself with the people, and how with the knights, and how to attach Pompey more closely to him?

How did the triumvirate divide the foreign provinces of the empire among them, and whom did Cæsar wish to remove? What qualities did Tullius Cicero possess, and from what had he raised himself? What were his character, abilities, and integrity? Whom did Cæsar induce to impeach the Roman orator, and of what was he accused, and what was his punishment? Who now alone remained to defend the senate, and whither was Cato sent, and for what purpose?

What were the achievements of Cæsar in Gaul and Britain? and how did he treat the Helvetians, the Germans, the Nervians, the Celtic Gauls, the Swedes, the Menapii, and others?

What nations had Cæsar subjected before he crossed over into Britain; and in less than nine years, what country did he conquer?

What roused Pompey to a sense of his danger, and what hastened the rupture between him and Cæsar? What did Pompey find upon examination of his strength?

What was the conduct of Cæsar to his soldiers and officers, and to his partisans in the city? for what purpose did he pillage the wealth of his provinces? and in him what air did rapine assume?

What did Pompey long to resume, and what opportunity offered for obtaining his desire? Why had no magistrates been elected for the

space of eight months, and by what means was this state of anarchy heightened? What did the multitude on the death of Clodius, who was killed by Milo, and what was Pompey made? What were allotted to Pompey, and what was the punishment of Milo? Whom did Pompey take for his colleague?

What did Cæsar solicit, and how was his solicitation defeated? What did Pompey wish, and where did Cæsar choose to remain?

Why did the senate reclaim two legions in Cæsar's army, and on what pretence? Did Cæsar comply with the orders of the senate?

Why did the senate recall Cæsar from his government, and what did Curius recommend? Why did Curius make the proposal, and by what was Pompey rendered arrogant?

What did Cæsar desire of the senate; what other proposal did he make, and what was the confidence of the senate? What other government did Cæsar solicit, and was refused, and on what were the senate determined? Why did Cæsar begin to draw towards the confines of Italy, and passing the Alps, stop at Ravenna, a city of Cisalpine Gaul? What was the purport of the letter which Cæsar sent from Ravenna, and was the whole body of the senate exasperated? What was the conduct of Marcellus the consul, and what said Lentulus his colleague?

Soon after, what did the senate decree, and whom did they invest with absolute authority? Who, disguised as slaves, fled to the camp of Cæsar? and what said Cæsar when he produced them to his army? What did the soldiers unanimously cry, and for what did every man prepare?

Whither did Cæsar march his army, and why was the Rubicon not to be passed? What said he, when he stopped on the banks of that river, and what when he plunged in? Did the soldiers obtain possession of Ariminum?

What did the news of this unexpected enterprise excite in Rome, and what were the feelings of Pompey? Of what did several of his friends accuse him, and what did Pompey allege? By what means did he console them, and did his representation revive the hopes of the confederacy? Whither did Pompey resolve to lead his forces, and who agreed to follow him to Capua? What scene was exhibited, when Pompey quitted Rome?

Whither did Cæsar resolve to pursue Pompey, and which was the first city that attempted to stop his progress? By whom was it defended, and what was Domitius at last obliged to attempt? How did the garrison consult their own safety? For whom did Lentulus the consul implore forgiveness, and what was the reply of Cæsar? What effect was produced in the city by this humane reply, and whither did Cæsar allow the officers of the garrison to depart? Why did Cæsar attach the common soldiers to his interest?

Whither did Pompey immediately retreat? did Cæsar soon arrive before Brundisium? and did each prepare to carry on the war?

Whither did Pompey transport the garrison of Brundisium, and whither did Cæsar return? Of what sums did Cæsar pillage the public treasury at Rome? Whither did he then lead his army, and with what intention? How did he become master of all Spain, and whither did he return? How was Cæsar received at Rome, and what was he created?

How was Pompey in the mean time employed, and who had declared in his favour? Of what legions was he master, and what fleet did he possess? Whom had he defeated, and who joined him from Rome?

How many senators were at one time in his camp, and with what was Cæsar threatened.

On what did Cæsar resolve, and where did he embark his forces? Where did the two rival armies come in sight of each other, and why was a battle eagerly desired by the soldiers on each side? Why were both Pompey and Cæsar unwilling to hazard an engagement on this occasion?

Whither did Pompey lead his troops, and what did Cæsar to force him to a battle? In the engagement which at length followed, how was Cæsar's army defeated, and by what timid caution did Pompey lose the empire of the world?

Did the resolution or hope of Cæsar fail him, and on what did he determine? With what intrepidity, and in what words, did he address his army? Whither did Cæsar then prepare to retreat, and did he effect his intention? Why did he thence march towards Macedonia, and where was he joined by Domitius, one of his lieutenants?

What did the officers of Pompey continually solicit their general to do? and did Pompey renounce his own better judgment and, advancing into Thessaly, encamp on the plains of Pharsalia? Whither marched Cæsar, and what filled the minds of all with anxiety? Did the army of Pompey seem confident of victory, and did Cæsar make frequent overtures of accommodation?

How did the two armies view each other, and how did the engagement commence? In what manner did the infantry maintain the contest and was the cavalry of Pompey routed? Was the camp of Pompey taken, and whither escaped the survivors? What said Cæsar of the field and camp strewn with his fallen countrymen?

What did the ramp of Pompey present to the eye, and what seemed preparatives? What did Cæsar by his conduct to the fugitives and clemency seem to have deserved? What was the loss of his army, and the number of prisoners? How did Cæsar treat the senators and knights who fell into his hands, and what did he with the letters of Pompey? Whither then marched Cæsar?

Whither fled Pompey, and to whom did he resolve to apply? What did the ministers of Ptolemy determine, and what was the fate of Pompey? By whom were his body burnt, and his ashes buried, and what was the inscription afterwards placed over them? What was the end of Pompey the Great, and of what is he considered the champion?

What were the character and talents of Pompey, and what was the purity of his aims? Could he have exceeded the moderation of Cæsar, and was Rome able to preserve its freedom?

Whither did Cæsar pursue Pompey, and how did he shew his sensibility on beholding the head of his rival? What did he cause to be erected on the spot where Pompey was murdered?

Between whom was the sovereignty of Egypt in dispute at this time, and in whose favour did Cæsar decide? What was the consequence of the war which ensued, and whom did Cæsar appoint joint governors? Why did Cæsar leave Cleopatra, and what was the name of the son which she bore to him? Who was Pharnaces, and on what had he seized, and in what words did Cæsar express the ease of his victory over him?

For what country did Cæsar embark, and what had he been created at Rome during his absence? What commotions did he appease, and whither did he hasten? Whom did Cæsar overthrow in Africa, and where did Cato shut himself up? How fell Cato, and what was his character?

Whither did Cæsar return? What was the nature of his triumph, and how long did it last? What was Cæsar created, and what title was given him? What was his person declared, what devolved on him alone, and how did he act?

Why was Cæsar obliged to go into Spain, and what decided his victory over the two sons of Pompey and Labienus?

What did Cæsar return to Rome to receive, and what moderation did he affect? What public works did he undertake, and with what honours did the senate load him? Why was it rumoured that he intended to make himself king, and at what time? Who was at the head of a conspiracy against him, and how had he favoured Brutus?

On what did Brutus plume himself, and what passion had been transmitted to him? Did he love Cæsar, and did he enter into a conspiracy against him? What was the character of Cassius, and in what did his desire of revenge originate?

Why did the conspirators delay their designs to the ides of March, and what had the augurs foretold? By what means was Cæsar prevailed on to attend the senate? Who wished to inform him of the conspiracy, and what did Artemidorus for that purpose?

Till what time did Cæsar defend himself against the conspirators, what did he say to Brutus, and is not the conduct of Brutus inexcusable? What fell Cæsar, and by what hands, and what is observable in his progress and in his fate?

What did the death of Cæsar excite in the minds of the Roman people, and of what were Marc Antony and Lepidus ambitious? By what means, and for what purpose, did Antony inflame the minds of the populace? How did he endeavour to bring over the senate, and to what did he make rapid strides?

In whom did Antony find a formidable competitor, and into what factions was the state divided?

What decree did Augustus procure, and where did Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus meet, and on what did they fix and determine? What does the contemplation of the men, thus seated and acting, shew? What was the result of their conference, and which article of their union deserves the bitterest execration? Whom did each give up, and what number of senators and knights were put to death?

Who was principally sought after, and how did Cicero for some time evade his pursuers? Why did he land, and why again proceed to one of his country seats? Where did his assassins overtake him, what did they carry to Antony, and what was the conduct of Antony? At what age died Cicero, and what does Julius Cæsar say of him?

Whither went Brutus and Cassius, and where did each of them raise an army? What did they soon find themselves in a condition to support, and to what was owing their success in raising levies?

Where and at what time is Brutus reported to have seen a spectre, and what was its appearance? What conversation passed between Brutus and the spectre?

Where did Brutus and his colleague arrive, and on what once more depended the empire of the world? How did Brutus view these great events, and what did he say?

What was the number of each army, and where did they meet and encamp? What was the nature of the plain near Philippi, upon what hills did Brutus and Cassius fix their camps, and what did the situation enable them to do? Where were the triumviri encamped, and why did they offer battle? Why did Brutus persuade Cassius to engage, did they

anticipate the worst, and what said Cassius to Brutus? What was the nature of the engagement, and what turned the fortune of the day against the republicans? How did Brutus and Cassius escape the vengeance of the conquerors?

What did the triumviri now become, and how did they act? What did the people chiefly lament? Of what did the triumviri begin to think? Whither went Antony, how was he honoured, and in what manner did he proceed from kingdom to kingdom? Of all the sovereigns of the East, who was most regarded, and whom did he follow into Egypt?

Why did Antony leave Egypt, and why was a marriage concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Augustus? How was the Roman empire again divided?

Why did Augustus banish Lepidus, and did the character and conduct of Antony facilitate the designs of Augustus? How did Antony spend whole days and nights, and whom did he proceed to marry?

Why did Augustus declare war against Antony, and did each side make preparations? What was the conduct of Antony, and where did he delay his army? By what forces was Antony followed, and by what Augustus?

What decided the fate of the Roman world, and to whom did it become subject? Where were the fleets ranged, and where the land armies? How was Antony defeated, and to whose mercy did he leave his fleet? Did both the naval forces and the troops yield to Augustus?

Whither did Augustus advance, and how did he take Pelusium? Whither did he march, and did Antony sally out of Alexandria, and put the enemy's cavalry to flight? On what did this slight advantage determine Antony, what did he order on the evening before his last desperate attempt, and what did he say to his friends?

Where did Antony post his troops, and what orders did he send to his galleys? Why was his joy turned into rage, and how behaved his cavalry? What were his efforts, and to what was he compelled? Did he say that he was betrayed by Cleopatra, and were his suspicions just?

What did Antony desire of the victor, and what answer did Augustus send? Why did Antony stab himself, and when did he expire? Whom did Cleopatra endeavour to propitiate, and by what means did she procure her death?

Of what empire was Augustus now at the head, what countries did it contain, and what was its extent?

EMPERORS

(B. C. 27, U. C. 721.) In order to lessen envy, and procure favour, Augustus disguised his new despotism under familiar names, which were allowed by the constitution that he had destroyed. He claimed the title of Emperor, that he might preserve authority over the army; he caused himself to be created Tribune, that he might manage the people; and Prince of the senate, that he might govern them. However, he considered for a long time whether he should keep the empire, or restore the people to their an-

cient liberty, the examples of Cæsar and Sylla operating upon him in a different manner. At length, by the advice of Mæcenas, who described the empire as too great and unwieldy to subsist without the most vigorous master, and likely to fall into pieces under several rulers, Augustus was easily prevailed on to preserve that power which he had so hardly laboured to obtain.

In order, however, to impress the people with an idea of his magnanimity, he pretended a wish to relinquish the sovereign power; but all unanimously beseeching him to continue the government, he complied apparently with reluctance, though doubtless with real pleasure. He assumed the government only for ten years, but managed so well, that his power was constantly renewed. The senate now bestowed on him the surname of Augustus, confirmed him in the title of father of his country, and declared his person sacred and inviolable. When he entered into his tenth consulship (B. C. 23), they approved by oath of all his institutions, set him wholly above the power of the laws and even offered to swear to the observance of whatever he should a future think proper to enact. In short, being a consummate politician, though he possessed not the virtues of a great man, he exercised the most unlimited power over the people, without their seeming to feel or to know it.

Augustus reposed unlimited confidence in Mæcenas, a very able minister, who sincerely desired the interest and the happiness of the people. By his excellent counsel, all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy of public grievances, and even for the correction of the morals of the people. To his patronage literature and the arts owed their advancement and support. In short, by the influence and wise instructions of his minister, Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was a stranger, and which had so beneficial an effect on the happiness of his subjects.

Indeed, the accumulation of titles and employments did not diminish the assiduity of Augustus in filling the duties of each. By his command, several very wholesome edicts were passed, tending to suppress corruption in the senate, and licentiousness in the people. He ordained that none should exhibit a show of gladiators without orders from the senate, and then not oftener than twice a year, nor with more than one hundred and twenty at a time. The knights,

and some women of the first distinction, had exhibited themselves as dancers upon the theatre; but he ordered that not only they, but their children and grand-children, should be restrained in future from such exercises. He fined many who had refused to marry at a certain age, and rewarded such as had several children. He enacted that virgins should not marry till twelve years of age, and permitted any person to kill an adulterer taken in the fact. Adding to the outward dignity of the senators what he had taken from their real power, he ordered that they should be always held in great reverence. No man was to have the freedom of the city conferred upon him, without a previous examination into his merit and character. He appointed new rules and limits to the manumission of slaves, and was himself a very strict observer of them. That he might prevent bribery in suing for offices, he took considerable sums of money from the candidates by way of pledge; and if any indirect practices were proved against them, they were obliged to forfeit all. These, and many other laws, all tending to extirpate vice, or to deter from crimes, gave the manners of the people another complexion; and the rough character of the Romans was now softened into refinement.

His station placing him above equality, he was familiar with all, and suffered himself to be reprimanded with the most patient humility. One of his veteran soldiers having entreated his protection in a lawsuit, Augustus took little notice of his request, and desired him to apply to an advocate. "Ah!" replied the soldier, "I did not serve you "by proxy at the battle of Actium." This reply so pleased Augustus, that he pleaded his cause in person, and gained it for him. He was so affable, that he returned the salutation of the meanest person. One day, a person presented him with a petition with so much awe, that Augustus was displeased with his meanness, and said, "What! friend, "you seem as if you were offering something to an elephant, "and not to a man:—be bolder." As he was sitting on the tribunal in judgement one day, Mæcenas perceived by his temper that he was inclined to be severe; and not being able to approach him for the crowd, he threw into his lap a paper on which was written, "Arise, executioner." Augustus, after reading it, immediately rose, and pardoned those whom he was disposed to condemn. Cornelius Cinna, the grandson of Pompey, had entered into a very

dangerous conspiracy against him; but the plot being discovered before it was ripe for execution, Augustus sent for him, and addressed him as follows: "I have twice given you your life; first as an enemy, and now as a conspirator. I now give you the consulship: let us, therefore, be friends for the future; and let us contend only in shewing, whether my confidence, or your fidelity, shall be victorious." This generosity had such an effect, that, from that instant, conspiracies ceased to be formed against the emperor.

During a long reign of forty years, Augustus seemed to find his own happiness in that of his people, whom he studied to preserve in peace. The wars carried on in the distant provinces, aimed rather at enforcing submission than at extending dominion; for he had made it a rule to carry on no operations, in which ambition, and not the safety of the state, was concerned. Yet the Roman arms were still generally crowned with success. Augustus had married Livia, the wife of Tiberius Nero, who had two sons by her former husband, Tiberius and Drusus. The latter was born three months after she had been married to Augustus, and was thought to be his own son. The former whom he afterwards adopted, and who succeeded him in the empire, was a good general, but of a suspicious temper. Drusus died on his return from an expedition against the Germans, and left Augustus inconsolable for his loss (B. C. 9, U. C. 739). But his greatest affliction was the libidinous conduct of his daughter Julia, whom he had by Scribonia, his former wife, and who set no bounds to her lewdness. Augustus gradually withdrew himself from the cares of the empire, and died at Nola in Campania, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign (A. D. 14, U. C. 762). The senate decreed, that all the women should mourn for him for a whole year; that temples should be erected to him, and divine honours allowed him; and one Numericus Atticus, willing to convert the adulation of the times to his own benefit, received a large sum of money for swearing that he saw him ascending towards heaven.

Such were the honours paid to Augustus, whose power began in the slaughter, and terminated in the happiness of his subjects, and of whom it has been said, "that it would have been good for mankind if he had never been born, or if he had never died." He gave the govern-

ment an air suited to the disposition of the times, and indulged his subjects in the pride of seeing the appearance of a republic, while in reality he made them happy in the effects of a most absolute monarchy, guided by the most consummate prudence. The long peace which his subjects enjoyed, may be entirely ascribed to his moderation; and about the middle of his reign, the greatest part of mankind saw themselves, at once, professing obedience to one monarch, and in perfect harmony with each other.

(U. C. 748.) This was the time in which our Saviour Jesus Christ came into the world, to atone by his blood for the sins of mankind, to make a more ample revelation of the will of God, and to sanction by his example the practice of every human virtue. He was born in Judea, in the seven hundred and fifty-second year of Rome, the twenty-fifth of the reign of Augustus, and in the four thousand and third year of the world according to the common computation.

Augustus had named Tiberius his heir, together with his mother Livia, and substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel; but the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the throne. Though Augustus left him in possession of great popularity and a flourishing empire, yet he soon injured his popularity, by claiming as a debt, that homage which his predecessor was willing to receive as a favour; and he subverted the happiness of the empire, by making a distinction between the welfare of the prince and of the people. However, having acted for a long time in a fictitious character, in the beginning of his reign nothing appeared but prudence, generosity, and clemency.

He utterly rejected many of those great names and titles of honour, which the senate so liberally offered him. He prohibited their erecting to him statues but upon certain occasions, and absolutely forbade them to worship him as a deity. When they offered to swear to obey all the ordinances which he should enact, he checked their vile adulation, and observed, that "all sublunary things were mutable and uncertain, and that the higher he was raised, the more he was exposed to danger." Some governors having indicated a mode of increasing his revenues, he answered with indignation, "that a good shepherd ought to shear, but never flay his flock." In short, the commencement of his reign was such a tissue of deep-laid

only spectators of the engagement, and encouraged their respective fleets (B. C. 29). Antony was defeated chiefly through the treachery of Cleopatra, who fled in the midst of the battle, and whom the infatuated Antony also followed, leaving his fleet at the mercy of his opponent. At length the naval forces of Antony submitted to the conqueror, and the troops on shore following the example of the navy, yielded to Augustus without striking a blow.

Augustus advanced with an army before the city of Pelusium, of which the governor, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession without resistance; and Augustus having no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, marched thither with all expedition. Upon his arrival, Antony sallied out to oppose him, and put the enemies cavalry to flight; and this slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes, and determined him to make a resolute and final effort both by land and sea. On the evening before the day appointed for this last desperate attempt, he ordered a grand entertainment to be prepared, "Give me good wine and good cheer," said he to his friends; "let me live to-day,—to-morrow, perhaps, you may serve another master."

At break of day, Antony posted the few troops which he had left, upon a rising ground near the city, and sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. He waited with his troops to behold, and at first had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order; but his joy was soon turned into rage, when his ships only saluted those of Augustus, and both fleets uniting together, sailed back into the harbour. At the same instant, his cavalry also deserted to the enemy. However, he tried to lead on his infantry, which were easily vanquished; and he himself was compelled to return into the town. His rage was ungovernable, and he cried out in an agony, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra; and, in fact, his suspicions were just, for it was by the secret orders of the queen that the fleet had passed over to Augustus.

Antony was now so humbled, that he desired of the victor only that his life might be spared, and that he might be allowed to pass the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals, however, Augustus sent no answer, Antony having received a false report that Cleopatra was

dead, stabbed himself in the belly with his sword, and expired a short time after. Cleopatra endeavoured to propitiate Augustus; but finding that he intended to lead her as a captive in his triumph, she procured her death by an asp, which was conveyed to her in a basket of figs.

Augustus was now at the head of the most extensive empire that mankind had ever beheld. It contained in Europe, Italy, Gaul, Spain, Greece, Illyricum, Dacia, Pannonia, Britain, and some part of Germany; in Asia, all the provinces known by the name of Asia Minor, together with Armenia, Syria, Judæa, Mesopotamia, and Media; and in Africa, Egypt, Numidia, Mauritania, and Libya. The whole comprised an extent of territory between three and four thousand miles in length, and half as much in breadth.

Questions on the History of Rome.

CONSULS.

When the Tarquins were expelled, why did the Romans abolish royalty? Instead of a king, whom was it agreed that the senators should choose, and with what authority? Who were the first Consuls in Rome? What conspiracy was formed in favour of Tarquin, and how was it defeated? Who were in the number of the conspirators, how were they punished, what was the conduct of Brutus, and what that of Collatinus?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to assist him, what was the issue of the conflict; how died Brutus, and what was his character?

What was the nature of the laws enacted by Valerius, and when was an appeal to the people allowed? Who was chosen with Valerius to the consulship?

Whom did Tarquin prevail on to espouse his cause, what was the nature of the attack on Rome, and by whom was the army of Porsenna prevented from entering the city? What induced Porsenna to retire from the Roman territory, and what did his soldiers leave behind in the camp?

What were still the feelings of Tarquin, and whom, and at what time, did he excite to espouse his interest? Why did the poorer classes complain, and when in debt to what were they reduced?

What modes of subsisting had the Romans under their kings? After the expulsion of the Tarquins, what did the senators and patricians appropriate to themselves? what was the condition of the soldier, and what the consequence of his borrowing money? and what did this complication of misery produce?

Which of the people, and for what reasons, refused to enlist in order to oppose Tarquin; and in this exigence, to what expedient had the senate recourse? To what was this expedient in time fatal? Who was created the first Dictator, who was eligible to the office, how long did it last, and what were the powers with which he was invested? What were the restrictions to which he was subject? How was Titus Lartius as

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Which of the people, and for what reasons, refused to enlist in order to oppose Tarquin, and in this exigence, to what expedient had the senate recourse? To what was this expedient in time fatal? Who was created the first Dictator; who was eligible to the office, how long did it last, and what were the powers with which he was invested? What were the restrictions to which he was subject? How was Titus Lartius as

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What decided the fate of the Roman world, and to whom did it become subject? Where were the fleets ranged, and where the land armies? How was Antony defeated, and to whose mercy did he leave his fleet? Did both the naval forces and the troops yield to Augustus?

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What did Antony desire of the victor, and what answer did Augustus send? Why did Antony stab himself, and when did he expire? Whom did Cleopatra endeavour to propitiate, and by what means did she procure her death?

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EMPERORS

(B. C. 27, U. C. 721.) In order to lessen envy, and procure favour, Augustus disguised his new despotism under familiar names, which were allowed by the constitution that he had destroyed. He claimed the title of Emperor, that he might preserve authority over the army; he caused himself to be created Tribune, that he might manage the people; and Prince of the senate, that he might govern them. However, he considered for a long time whether he should keep the empire, or restore the people to their an-

erent liberty, the examples of Cæsar and Sylla operating upon him in a different manner. At length, by the advice of Mæcenas, who described the empire as too great and unwieldy to subsist without the most vigorous master, and likely to fall into pieces under several rulers, Augustus was easily prevailed on to preserve that power which he had so hardly laboured to obtain.

In order, however, to impress the people with an idea of his magnanimity, he pretended a wish to relinquish the sovereign power; but all unanimously beseeching him to continue the government, he complied apparently with reluctance, though doubtless with real pleasure. He assumed the government only for ten years, but managed so well, that his power was constantly renewed. The senate now bestowed on him the surname of Augustus, confirmed him in the title of father of his country, and declared his person sacred and inviolable. When he entered into his tenth consulship (B. C. 23), they approved by oath of all his institutions, set him wholly above the power of the laws and even offered to swear to the observance of whatever he should in future think proper to enact. In short, being a consummate politician, though he possessed not the virtues of a great man, he exercised the most unlimited power over the people, without their seeming to feel or to know it.

Augustus reposed unlimited confidence in Mæcenas, a very able minister, who sincerely desired the interest and the happiness of the people. By his excellent counsel, all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy of public grievances, and even for the correction of the morals of the people. To his patronage literature and the arts owed their advancement and support. In short, by the influence and wise instructions of his minister, Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was a stranger, and which had so beneficial an effect on the happiness of his subjects.

Indeed, the accumulation of titles and employments did not diminish the assiduity of Augustus in filling the duties of each. By his command, several very wholesome edicts were passed, tending to suppress corruption in the senate, and licentiousness in the people. He ordained that none should exhibit a show of gladiators without orders from the senate, and then not oftener than twice a year, nor with more than one hundred and twenty at a time. The knights,

and some women of the first distinction, had exhibited themselves as dancers upon the theatre; but he ordered that not only they, but their children and grand-children, should be restrained in future from such exercises. He fined many who had refused to marry at a certain age, and rewarded such as had several children. He enacted that virgins should not marry till twelve years of age, and permitted any person to kill an adulterer taken in the fact. Adding to the outward dignity of the senators what he had taken from their real power, he ordered that they should be always held in great reverence. No man was to have the freedom of the city conferred upon him, without a previous examination into his merit and character. He appointed new rules and limits to the manumission of slaves, and was himself a very strict observer of them. That he might prevent bribery in suing for offices, he took considerable sums of money from the candidates by way of pledge; and if any indirect practices were proved against them, they were obliged to forfeit all. These, and many other laws, all tending to extirpate vice, or to deter from crimes, gave the manners of the people another complexion; and the rough character of the Romans was now softened into refinement.

His station placing him above equality, he was familiar with all, and suffered himself to be reprimanded with the most patient humility. One of his veteran soldiers having entreated his protection in a lawsuit, Augustus took little notice of his request, and desired him to apply to an advocate. "Ah!" replied the soldier, "I did not serve you "by proxy at the battle of Actium." This reply so pleased Augustus, that he pleaded his cause in person, and gained it for him. He was so affable, that he returned the salutation of the meanest person. One day, a person presented him with a petition with so much awe, that Augustus was displeased with his meanness, and said, "What! friend, "you seem as if you were offering something to an elephant, "and not to a man:—be bolder." As he was sitting on the tribunal in judgement one day, Mæcenas perceived by his temper that he was inclined to be severe; and not being able to approach him for the crowd, he threw into his lap a paper on which was written, "Arise, executioner." Augustus, after reading it, immediately rose, and pardoned those whom he was disposed to condemn. Cornelius Cinna, the grandson of Pompey, had entered into a ver

dangerous conspiracy against him; but the plot being discovered before it was ripe for execution, Augustus sent for him, and addressed him as follows: "I have twice given you your life; first as an enemy, and now as a conspirator. I now give you the consulship: let us, therefore, be friends for the future; and let us contend only in shewing, whether my confidence, or your fidelity, shall be victorious." This generosity had such an effect, that, from that instant, conspiracies ceased to be formed against the emperor.

During a long reign of forty years, Augustus seemed to find his own happiness in that of his people, whom he studied to preserve in peace. The wars carried on in the distant provinces, aimed rather at enforcing submission than at extending dominion; for he had made it a rule to carry on no operations, in which ambition, and not the safety of the state, was concerned. Yet the Roman arms were still generally crowned with success. Augustus had married Livia, the wife of Tiberius Nero, who had two sons by her former husband, Tiberius and Drusus. The latter was born three months after she had been married to Augustus, and was thought to be his own son. The former, whom he afterwards adopted, and who succeeded him in the empire, was a good general, but of a suspicious temper. Drusus died on his return from an expedition against the Germans, and left Augustus inconsolable for his loss (B. C. 9, U. C. 739). But his greatest affliction was the libidinous conduct of his daughter Julia, whom he had by Scribonia, his former wife, and who set no bounds to her lewdness. Augustus gradually withdrew himself from the cares of the empire, and died at Nola in Campania, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and the forty-fourth of his reign (A. D. 14, U. C. 762). The senate decreed, that all the women should mourn for him for a whole year; that temples should be erected to him, and divine honours allowed him; and one Numerius Atticus, willing to convert the adulation of the times to his own benefit, received a large sum of money for swearing that he saw him ascending towards heaven.

Such were the honours paid to Augustus, whose power began in the slaughter, and terminated in the happiness of his subjects, and of whom it has been said, "that it would have been good for mankind if he had never been born, or if he had never died." He gave the govern-

ment an air suited to the disposition of the times, and indulged his subjects in the pride of seeing the appearance of a republic, while in reality he made them happy in the effects of a most absolute monarchy, guided by the most consummate prudence. The long peace which his subjects enjoyed, may be entirely ascribed to his moderation ; and about the middle of his reign, the greatest part of mankind saw themselves, at once, professing obedience to one monarch, and in perfect harmony with each other.

(U. C 748.) This was the time in which our Saviour Jesus Christ came into the world, to atone by his blood for the sins of mankind, to make a more ample revelation of the will of God, and to sanction by his example the practice of every human virtue. He was born in Judea, in the seven hundred and fifty-second year of Rome, the twenty-fifth of the reign of Augustus, and in the four thousand and third year of the world according to the common computation.

Augustus had named Tiberius his heir, together with his mother Livia, and substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel ; but the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the throne. Though Augustus left him in possession of great popularity and a flourishing empire, yet he soon injured his popularity, by claiming as a debt, that homage which his predecessor was willing to receive as a favour ; and he subverted the happiness of the empire, by making a distinction between the welfare of the prince and of the people. However, having acted for a long time in a fictitious character, in the beginning of his reign nothing appeared but prudence, generosity, and clemency.

He utterly rejected many of those great names and titles of honour, which the senate so liberally offered him. He prohibited their erecting to him statues but upon certain occasions, and absolutely forbade them to worship him as a deity. When they offered to swear to obey all the ordinances which he should enact, he checked their vile adulation, and observed, that "all sublunary things were mutable and uncertain, and that the higher he was raised, the more he was exposed to danger." Some governors having indicated a mode of increasing his revenues, he answered with indignation, "that a good shepherd ought to shear, but never flay his flock." In short, the commencement of his reign was such a tissue of deep-laid

decent, that he rendered every one the dupe of his affectation of goodness.

However, notwithstanding these symptoms of moderation, it was soon found, that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was too limited for the ambition of Tiberius: he demolished the very appearance of a republic, no longer assembled the people, and supplied the magistracies of the state by his own will.

Germanicus, the nephew of Tiberius, became the object of his jealousy, on account of the glory which he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and by the high favour with which he was regarded by the Roman people. He was, therefore, recalled by Tiberius, who, well skilled in dissimulation, made him an offer of the consulship, and requested him to execute the office in person (A. D. 18). Germanicus being appointed governor of all the provinces of Asia, departed from Rome on his eastern expedition, and was soon after poisoned by Cneius Piso, governor of Syria, whom Tiberius had instructed to oppose him on every occasion, and even to procure his death (A. D. 19). The whole empire was greatly distressed on hearing of the fate of Germanicus; but the people of Rome set no bounds to their sorrow, disregarding all public and private business, and filling the streets with lamentations.

Tiberius having now no object of jealousy to awe him, pulled off the mask entirely, and appeared in his natural character. The gloomy disposition and insincerity of the prince were diffused through all ranks of men; and the law of offended majesty being revived, Cremutius Cordus, who, in his annals of the Roman empire, had called Brutus the last of the Romans, was the first of note that fell a sacrifice to it.

About the commencement of these sanguinary measures, Tiberius took into his confidence Sejanus, a Roman knight, whom the emperor made captain of the prætorian guards, and who ventured to aspire at the throne by the extermination of the whole imperial family. Drusus, the son of Tiberius, was cut off by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with the elder of her sons, was banished, and the younger confined in prison. Sejanus insinuated to Tiberius the great and numerous inconveniences of the city, and the seditious temper of the inferior citizens of Rome, and persuaded him to leave Rome, and spend his

time in the island of Caprea, which was rendered as infamous by the pleasures, as detestable by the cruelties of the emperor. In this delightful retreat, which lies three miles from the continent, and opposite Naples, he abandoned himself to the most shameful enjoyments, regardless of public events (A. D. 26).

At this time, Tiberius was sixty-seven years old; and his person was as displeasing as his mind was deformed. He was quite bald before; his face was full of ulcers, and covered with plasters; his body was bent forward, while its extreme height and leanness increased its deformity. His whole study now centered in forcing his jaded appetites; and he spent whole nights in debaucheries at the table. He appointed Pomponius Flaccus and Lucius Piso to the first posts of the empire, merely because they sat up with him two days and two nights without interruption: these he called his friends of all hours. His luxuries of another kind were still more detestable, and seemed to increase with his drunkenness and gluttony. He compelled the most eminent women of Rome to be subservient to his lusts; and all his inventions aimed only at rendering his vices more extravagant and abominable. In short, in this retreat, he gave up all attention to business; and if he was ever active, it was in doing only mischief.

Happy indeed had it been for mankind, if he had laid aside his suspicions when he declined the fatigues of reigning, and resigned the will to injure, when he divested himself of the power of doing good. But from the time of his retreat he became more cruel; and Sejanus was ever active in adding fuel to his jealousy, and increasing his malignity. The infamous minister placed in all parts of the city secret spies and informers, who converted the most harmless actions into subjects of offence. In consequence of pretended crimes, great numbers lost their lives. Virtue or influence failed not to draw down the vengeance of Sejanus, who proceeded in removing all that stood between him and the empire, while he daily increased in confidence with Tiberius, and in power with the senate. His statues exceeded in number even those of the emperor; people swore by his fortune, in the same manner they would have done had he been actually upon the throne; and he was more dreaded than even the tyrant who enjoyed the empire. But while the designs of Sejanus

seemed daily to succeed, he was accused to Tiberius of aiming at the throne (A. D. 31); and being imprisoned by command of the emperor, he was strangled by the common executioner, and his body ignominiously dragged about the streets. Such was the end of Sejanus, the profligate minion of a profligate master; a man whose living conduct deserves our execration, but whose death may afford an useful lesson to an insulted people, and a worthless minister.

The death of this wretch only inflamed the emperor's rage for more executions. The prisons were crowded with pretended conspirators, and numbers of the most illustrious persons of Rome, of all ages and both sexes, became the victims of pretended crimes, or of jealous suspicion. Tiberius grew weary of individual execution, and gave orders that all the accused should be put to death together, without farther examination. The whole city was filled with slaughter and mourning, under the arbitrary rod of this gloomy tyrant. Of twenty-six senators, whom he chose for his council, he put sixteen to death, exclaiming, "Let them hate me, since they obey me." This monster of cruelty falling sick, was smothered, or, as some say, poisoned by Macro, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign (A. D. 37, U. C. 785).

In the eighteenth year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, the divine author of our religion, suffered death upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind.

The late emperor had nominated for his heir Caligula*, the son of Germanicus, who had been the darling of the army and the people, and joined with him Gemellus, the son of Drusus. However, on the entrance of Caligula into the city, he was received with new titles of honour by the senate, who set aside the right of his colleague, and declared him sole successor to the empire. All mankind seemed combined to praise him for virtues, which their hopes, and not their experience, had given him, and in which they were universally mistaken. At first, indeed, the conduct of Caligula was calculated to deceive; and it would have been happy, both for him and the empire, had he maintained the reputation with which he commenced

* He was so called from *caliga* a short buskin, which was worn by the common sentinels, and which he used in imitation of them.

his reign. He evinced the most pious regard to the memory of his deceased relations in general, and ordered that the month of September should be called Germanicus, in commemoration of his father. He caused the institutions of Augustus, which had been disused in the reign of Tiberius, to be revived, and undertook to reform many abuses in the state. He attempted to restore the ancient method of electing magistrates by the suffrages of the people, and conferred on them a free jurisdiction, without any appeal to himself. In short, such were his concessions, and such his apparent virtues, that a shield of gold, bearing his image, was decreed to be carried annually to the capitol, attended by the senate, and the sons of the nobility, singing in praise of the emperor; and the day on which he mounted the throne was inserted among the festivals. However, in the place of moderation and clemency, soon succeeded furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty; and madness itself could scarcely dictate barbarities more extravagant, or inconsistencies more ridiculous, than are imputed to Caligula.

The first object of his cruelty was a person named Politus, who had devoted himself to death, in case the emperor should recover from a fit of sickness, and whom Caligula, after the re-establishment of his health, compelled to complete his vow. After him, a crowd of victims were immolated to the emperor's avarice or suspicions. He claimed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of Jupiter and some other gods to be cut off, and his own to be put in their places. He seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and commanded that all who came to their temple to worship, should pay their adorations only to him. But such was the extravagant inconstancy of this capricious or insane monarch, that he changed his divinity as often as he changed his clothes, and sometimes became a male, and at other times a female deity. He even built and dedicated a temple to his own divinity, in which his statue of gold was every day dressed in robes similar to those which he himself wore, and was worshipped by crowds of adorers. His priests were numerous, and among the number were his horse and his wife; and to crown his absurdities, he became a priest to himself. In assuming the manners of

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Why was Caesar obliged to go into Spain, and what decided his victory over the two sons of Pompey and Labienus?

What did Caesar return to Rome to receive, and what moderation did he affect? What public works did he undertake, and with what honours did the senate load him? Why was it rumoured that he intended to make himself king, and at what time? Who was at the head of a conspiracy against him, and how had he favoured Brutus?

On what did Brutus plume himself, and what passion had been transmitted to him? Did he love Caesar, and did he enter into a conspiracy against him? What was the character of Cassius, and in what did his desire of revenge originate?

Why did the conspirators delay their designs to the ides of March, and what had the augurs foretold? By what means was Caesar persuaded to attend the senate? Who wished to inform him of the conspiracy, and what did Artemidorus for that purpose?

Till what time did Caesar defend himself against the conspirators, who did he say to Brutus, and is not the conduct of Brutus inexcusable? What fell Caesar, and by what hands, and what is observable in his progress and in his fate?

What did the death of Caesar excite in the minds of the Roman people, and of what were Marc Antony and Lepidus ambitious? By what means, and for what purpose, did Antony inflame the minds of the populace? How did he endeavour to bring over the senate, and to what did he make rapid strides?

In whom did Antony find a formidable competitor, and into what factions was the state divided?

What decree did Augustus procure, and where did Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus meet, and on what did they fix and determine? What does the contemplation of the men, thus seated and acting, shew? What was the result of their conference, and which article of their union deserves the bitterest execration? Whom did each give up, and what number of senators and knights were put to death?

Who was principally sought after, and how did Cicero for some time evade his pursuers? Why did he land, and why again proceed to one of his country seats? Where did his assassins overtake him, what did they carry to Antony, and what was the conduct of Antony? At what age died Cicero, and what does Julius Caesar say of him?

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previously been by the army, he immediately assumed the title and ensigns of command, and marched to Rome. Though raised to the empire by means of the soldiers, yet he was anxious to suppress their power; and some of them having behaved in a very disrespectful manner, he used such extensive punishments as seemed to deviate into cruelty. His ill-timed parsimony also speedily occasioned him the loss of his popularity; and he, who before his accession was esteemed by all, was now regarded with ridicule and contempt.

Indeed, it seems to have been desired by him, to punish with severity those vices which had arrived at an enormous height during the last reign, and to replenish the treasury, which had been entirely drained by the prodigality of his predecessors. However, the state was too much corrupted to admit of such an immediate transition from vice to virtue, as this worthy, but weak, politician attempted to effect. The people, who had long been maintained in sloth and luxury by the prodigality of the former emperors, could not think of being obliged to seek for subsistence by industry and frugality. They, therefore, satirised the old man, and turned the simplicity of his manners into ridicule. It is said, that he groaned upon having an expensive soup served up at his table; that he presented to his steward, for his fidelity, a plate of beans; and that a famous player on the flute, named Canus, having greatly delighted him, he drew out his purse, and gave him five pence, telling him that it was private and not public money.

It should be remarked, however, that avarice was the vice rather of his confidants than of Galba; and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Galba being informed of these commotions, resolved to adopt some person as his heir, whose virtues might deserve such advancement, and protect his declining age from danger. Accordingly, he made choice of Piso Lucinianus, who was every way worthy of the honour designed. This measure excited the jealousy of Otho, Galba's former favourite, who, revolting, avowed his intentions of aiming at the throne. Otho was immediately seconded in his views by the soldiers, who, taking him upon their shoulders, declared him emperor, and soon after presented him, as a grateful offering, with the heads of Galba and Piso. Thus died Galba, after a short reign of seven months, as illustrious by his native virtue, as contaminated by the

vices of his favourites. Of Galba it has been said, that had he never mounted a throne, he would have been always thought capable of reigning.

(A. D. 69.) No sooner was the murder of Galba known, than the senate and the people ran in crowds to the camp, eager to extol the virtues of the new emperor, and to vilify his predecessor. In a private station, Otho was weak, vicious, and debauched; but no sooner was he raised to the empire, than he became courageous, benevolent and humane. The legions in Lower Germany, having been purchased by the large gifts and specious promises of Vitellius their general, disregarded the authority of the senate, and proclaimed him emperor. A decisive battle was fought at Bebricum; and the troops of Otho being defeated, he formed a resolution to die, as the only means of ridding himself of his cares, and his country of its calamities. Accordingly, awaking by break of day, he took a dagger, which he had placed under his pillow the night before, and giving himself a mortal stab on the left side, ended his life with a single groan, after a short reign of three months and five days. Though we cannot but reprobate the means by which Otho acquired dominion, yet his conduct after obtaining the empire makes us lament his end.

Vitellius being thus seconded by a victorious army, was immediately proclaimed emperor by the senate, though he was still in Gaul. After his arrival in Rome, he committed the affairs of state to the lowest wretches, and abandoned himself to all kinds of luxury and profuseness. Gluttony, however, was his predominant vice; and he brought himself to a habit of vomiting, that he might be able to renew his meals at pleasure. Thus this beastly glutton spent his time in the most gross sensualities; and, if he had reigned long, the whole empire would not have been sufficient to maintain his table. All the attendants of his court sought to raise themselves by the sumptuousness of their entertainments; and this prodigality soon produced want, which gave rise to cruelty and rapine.

Vitellius now destroyed without mercy those who had formerly been his associates; and going to visit one of them in a violent fever, he mingled poison with his water, and delivered it to him with his own hands, in order to obtain his fortune. He never pardoned money lenders who presumed to demand payment of his former debts, and he thus cancelled old claims, by seizing on both the life and

property of the applicant. A Roman knight, being dragged away to execution, cried out, that he had made the emperor his heir. Vitellius, therefore, demanded to see the will, in which finding himself joint inheritor with another, he ordered both to be executed, that he might enjoy the legacy without a partner. The incessant repetition of such vices and cruelties rendered him not only a burthen to himself, but odious to all mankind. The astrologers, with no vain foresight, now began to prognosticate his downfall; and they set up a writing in the forum to the following effect: "We, in the name of the ancient Chaldeans, give Vitellius warning to depart this life by the calends of October."

Vespasian, who had long before been appointed general against the Jews, had reduced most of their country except Jerusalem, which he was about to besiege, when he understood that Vitellius was held in universal detestation. Vespasian secretly endeavoured to inflame the discontents of his army; and finding himself at the head of the Roman forces in the East, after some deliberation, he sent the greatest part of his legions into Italy, under the command of Antonius Primus, who advanced to Rome. The forces of Vitellius were resolved to defend the city, which was attacked on three sides with the utmost fury. The army within sallied upon the besiegers, and an obstinate and a bloody battle ensued. At length, the troops of Antonius drove the besieged into the city, when a dreadful slaughter commenced in all the streets, which the latter vainly attempted to defend. Vitellius was taken and put to death; and his body, after being dragged through the streets with a hook, was ignominiously thrown into the Tiber. Such was the merited end of this brutal monarch, after a short reign of eight months and five days, begun in cruelty, and continued with universal detestation. The last three emperors had appeared only like sovereigns in a tragedy, "to strut their hour upon the stage, and then to be seen no more."

(A. D. 70, U. C. 818.) Vespasian* was declared emperor by the unanimous consent both of the senate and the army; and messengers were sent into Egypt, requesting his return, and testifying the utmost desire for his govern-

* The Flavian family, from which Vespasian was sprung, was originally of Reate, in the country of the Sabines, and was conspicuous neither for its lustre nor its antiquity.

ment. But before he set out for Rome, it is said that he cured a blind and a lame man by touching them. As he approached the metropolis, he was met by the senate and half the inhabitants, who testified their joy in having an emperor of such great and experienced virtues.

Whilst Vespasian was thus receiving the homage of his subjects, his son Titus carried on the war against the Jews with vigour. He wished to spare Jerusalem, and tried, but in vain, every means in his power to induce the Jews to surrender. After a siege of six months, Jerusalem was totally destroyed, having flourished under the peculiar direction of Heaven, above two thousand years. According to Josephus, the numbers who perished in the siege amounted to more than a million of souls, and the captives to almost one hundred thousand. The wretched survivors were banished, sold, and dispersed into all parts of the world, where they have ever since remained, in their posterity, a monument of the divine wrath, and an evidence of the truth of revelation. The return of Titus in triumph with his father, was marked with all the magnificence and joy which could be expressed. This was the first time that the father and the son ever triumphed together at Rome. Vespasian built a temple to peace, in which were deposited the book of the holy law and most of the Jewish spoils; and having now calmed all commotions in every part of the empire, he shut up the temple of Janus*.

Having thus given security and peace to the empire, Vespasian resolved to correct numberless abuses, which had grown up under the tyranny of his predecessors; and to effect this with greater facility, he joined Titus with him in the consulship and tribunitial power, and, in some measure, admitted him as a partner in all the highest offices of the state. Vespasian endeavoured to restrain the licentiousness of the army, and to bring them back to their pristine discipline. He degraded such of the senators and the knights as were a disgrace to their station, and supplied their places with the most worthy men that he could find. He abridged the processes, which had been unreasonably lengthened, in the courts of justice. In short, he passed a long reign of clemency and moderation, of justice and

* This temple was shut in peace, and open in war. During the reign of Augustus it was twice shut, a circumstance remarkable in the history of a nation that was almost incessantly at war in some part of the world.

equity. His only fault was a tincture of avarice, which was greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use to which he appropriated his revenues. "He was a man," says Phny, "in whom power made no alteration, except in giving him the opportunity of doing good equal to his will."

He always seemed averse from those swelling titles which the senate and people were constantly offering him; and when the king of Parthia, in one of his letters, styled himself "king of kings," Vespasian, in his answer, only called himself simply "Flavius Vespasian." So far from attempting to hide the lowness of his origin, he frequently mentioned it in company; and when some flatterers would have derived his pedigree from Hercules, he despised and derided the meanness of their adulation. In this manner, after reigning ten years, beloved by his subjects, and deserving their affection, he was surprised with an indisposition at Campania, which from the beginning he declared would be fatal, and cried out in the spirit of paganism, "Methinks I am going to be a god." Removing thence to a country seat near Reate, the seat of his father, he was seized with a flux, which brought him to the last extremity; and perceiving his end approaching, and that he was about to expire, he observed, "that an emperor ought to die standing." He, therefore, raised himself upon his feet, and expired in the arms of his supporters.

(A. D. 79.) On the death of Vespasian, his son Titus was joyfully received as emperor, and commenced his reign with the practice of every virtue. He was an example of the greatest moderation and humanity; and his prudent conduct, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the delight of mankind. Recollecting one night at table, that he had done nothing beneficial during that day, he exclaimed, "O my friends, I have lost a day!" He was so tender of the lives of his subjects, that, in order to keep his hands undefiled with blood, he took upon him the office of Pontifex Maximus, or high priest.

Agricola having been sent into Britain towards the end of Vespasian's reign, this excellent general shewed himself equally expert in quelling the refractory, and in civilizing those who had formerly submitted to the Roman power. He first subdued the Ordovices, or inhabitants of North Wales, and then made a descent upon Mona,

or the island of Anglesey, which surrendered at discretion. Having thus rendered himself master of the whole country, he endeavoured to restore discipline to his own army, and to introduce some share of politeness among those whom he had conquered, and whom he exhorted, both by advice and example, to build temples, theatres, and stately houses. He caused the sons of their nobility to be instructed in the liberal arts, and taught the Latin language, and induced them to imitate the Roman modes of dress and living. Thus, this barbarous people began gradually to assume the luxurious manners of their conquerors, and afterwards even exceeded them in all the refinements of sensual pleasure.

In this reign happened an eruption of mount Vesuvius, which entirely buried Herculaneum and Pompeii, and severely injured other towns. On this memorable occasion, Pliny the naturalist lost his life. Titus died in the forty-first year of his age, and the third of his reign, not without suspicion of treachery from his brother Domitian (A. D. 81, U. C. 830). The tears and lamentations of his people followed his obsequies, and history is proud to record his name among the most meritorious of princes.

The beginning of Domitian's reign was equally remarkable for clemency, liberality, and justice. But the mask of dissimulation soon dropped off, and Domitian appeared in all his natural deformity. Instead of cultivating literature, as his father and brother had done, he neglected all kinds of study, and addicted himself to meaner pursuits, particularly archery and gaming, in both of which he excelled. He instituted contests in music, horsemanship, and wrestling; but, at the same time, he banished all philosophers and mathematicians from Rome. He entertained the people with various and very expensive shows; and during these diversions he distributed great rewards, sitting as president, adorned with a purple robe and crown, and surrounded by the priests of Jupiter and the college of the Flavian priests. He usually spent his hours of retirement in catching flies, and sticking them through with a bodkin; and hence his chamberlain being asked if the emperor was alone, answered, "that he had not so much as a fly to keep him company."

The successes of Agricola in Britain threw a lustre on the Roman arms, which affected Domitian with an extreme degree of envy. This admirable general, pursuing

the advantages which he had already obtained, subdued the Caledonians, and overcame Calgacus, the British chief, at the head of thirty thousand men. Afterwards, sending out a fleet to scour the coast, he discovered and subdued the Orkneys; and he thus reduced the whole into a civilized province of the Roman empire. The account of these successes was received by Domitian with seeming pleasure, but with real chagrin. He ordered him, indeed, external marks of approbation, and took care that triumphant ornaments, statues, and other honours, should be decreed him; but, at the same time, he removed him from his command, under pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria, which he afterwards gave to another. Agricola died soon after in retirement, not without suspicion of violence by the emperor's direction.

Domitian, however, soon found the want of so experienced a commander, in the many irruptions of those barbarous nations which surrounded the empire. The Sarmatians in Europe, joined with those in Asia, made a formidable invasion; while the Dacians, under the conduct of Decebalus their king, overthrew the Romans in several engagements. The limits of the empire, and the banks of the Danube, were not now the objects for which they contended; but then the provinces themselves were in danger. One loss followed another; and every season became memorable for some remarkable overthrow. At length, however, the barbarians were repelled, partly by force, and partly by the assistance of money, which only induced them to make future invasions. Domitian returned in great splendour to Rome; and, not contented with triumphing twice without a victory, he assumed the name of Germanicus, for a conquest over a people with whom he had never contended.

The cruelties of the emperor, many of which seemed almost without a motive, deservedly produced resistance, and induced Lucius Antonius, governor of Upper Germany, to assume the ensigns of imperial dignity, and to contend for the throne (A. D. 89). But Antonius proving unsuccessful, Domitian's severity was greatly increased; and, in order to discover the accomplices of the adverse party, he invented new tortures, sometimes cutting off the hands, and at other times inflicting different severe punishments on the bodies of the suspected. Frequently, after pre-

siding at an execution, he would retire with the lowliest prostitutes. His extortion, which was a consequence of his prodigality, was unbounded; and, in particular, he exacted large sums of money from the rich Jews (A. D. 95). By his letters and edicts he banished the Christians in several parts of the empire, and caused them to be put to death with all the tortures of ingenious cruelty. At length, this monster fell a victim to assassination, and was murdered by Stephanus, the comptroller of his household, who, with Domitia, the wife of the emperor, and several others, had been marked in the tablets of Domitian for destruction. Stephanus was introduced into the presence of the emperor under the pretence of discovering a conspiracy; and whilst Domitian was reading, with eager curiosity, a paper which Stephanus had given him, Stephanus struck the emperor in the groin with a dagger; and other persons rushing into the apartment, Domitian was dispatched with seven wounds (A. D. 96, U. C. 844.)

No sooner was the death of Domitian publicly announced, than the senate, after causing all his inscriptions to be erased, his name struck out of the registers of fame, and his funeral omitted, immediately, with one voice, declared Cocceius Nerva emperor. This man, who was of an illustrious family, though not originally Roman, and above sixty-five years of age, was very remarkable for his virtues, moderation, and respect to the laws, and owed his exaltation solely to his blameless conduct.

On coming to the throne, he solemnly swore, that, during his reign, no Roman senator should be put to death, by his command, for any cause whatever. He released the cities of the empire from many severe duties, which his predecessors had imposed, and restored the property of those who had been unjustly dispossessed. He made several good laws and regulations; and, in every respect, he behaved like an indulgent father to his people. He permitted no statues to be erected to his honour, and converted into money such of Domitian's as had been spared by the senate. He sold many rich robes, and much of the splendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched several unreasonable expences at court. At the same time, he paid so little regard to money, that when one of his subjects found a large treasure, and submitted the disposal of it to the emperor, he received for answer, that he might use it: but the finder informing the emperor, that ~~it was~~

a fortune too large for a private person, Nerva admired his honesty, and wrote him word that then he might abuse it.

Perceiving that in the then turbulent disposition of the times, he stood in need of an assistant in the empire, who might share the fatigues of government, and contribute to keep the licentious in awe, with generous concern for the public welfare, he fixed on Ulpian Trajan, an utter stranger to his family, who was at that time governor in Upper Germany, as his colleague and successor. Nerva died soon after, highly esteemed for his generosity and moderation and deservedly endeared to the good of every rank.

(A. D. 98, U. C. 846.) Though Trajan was born at Seville in Spain, yet his family was originally from Italy. At an early age he accompanied his father, who was a general of the Romans, in his expeditions along the Euphrates and the Rhine, and, while yet very young, acquired a considerable reputation for military talents. When he was made general of the army in Lower Germany, one of the most considerable employments in the empire, it caused no alteration in his manners or way of living, and he differed from the private tribune in no respect, except in his superior wisdom and virtue. The great qualities of his mind were heightened by all the advantages of person and, with these endowments, he possessed a modesty which seemed peculiar to himself, and which rendered him apparently insensible to his excellent and numerous accomplishments. In short, Trajan is distinguished as the greatest and the best emperor that Rome ever saw. Others may have equalled him in war, and some may have been his rivals in clemency and goodness; but he was the only prince who united these talents in the greatest perfection, and who appears equally to engage our admiration and regard.

After the death of Nerva, he prepared to return to Rome, whither he was invited by the united entreaties of the state. He conducted his march with a discipline which had for a long time been unknown in the armies of the empire. He neither ravaged nor taxed the countries through which he passed; and he entered the city, not in triumph, though he had well deserved such an honour, but on foot, attended by the civil officers of the state, and followed by his soldiers, who marched silently forward with modesty and respect.

The most rapid review of Trajan's actions would carry us beyond our limits. His application to business, his moderation to his enemies, his modesty in exaltation, his liberality to the deserving, and his frugality in his own expences, have all been the subject of panegyric among his cotemporaries, and continue to be the admiration of posterity. On giving the prefect of the prætorian bands the sword, according to custom, he spoke as follows: "Take this sword and use it;—if I have merit, for me;—if otherwise against me." The first war in which he was engaged after his coming to the throne, was with the Dacians, over whom he obtained several victories; and, though the country was spacious and uncultivated, and the inhabitants brave and hardy, he at length finally subdued the whole, and annexed Dacia to the Roman empire (A. D. 106). Decebalus, the Dacian king, was slain, and his head sent to Rome as a trophy of success.

Trajan now employed his attention on the internal affairs of the empire, and adorned the city with public buildings. He freed Rome from such men as lived by their vices; he entertained persons of merit with the utmost familiarity; and he so little feared his enemies, that he could scarcely be induced to believe that he had any.

It would have been happy for this great prince's memory, if he had shewn clemency to all his subjects; but about the ninth year of his reign, the Christians, under the sanction of a law passed some time before, were persecuted in all parts of the empire. Great numbers of them were put to death. In this persecution, St. Clemens, bishop of Rome, was condemned to be thrown into the sea, with an anchor about his neck; St. Simcon, bishop of Jerusalem, at the age of one hundred and twenty, was scourged and crucified; and St. Ignatius, who had a particular dispute with Trajan, at Antioch, was condemned to be thrown to wild beasts, in the amphitheatre at Rome.

The Armenians and Parthians throwing off all submission to Rome, Trajan turned his arms against them, and headed the forces in person. Having speedily subdued Armenia, he marched into the dominions of the king of Parthia, and entering the opulent kingdom of Mesopotamia, reduced it into the form of a Roman province. He subdued Syria and Chaldea, and took the famous city of Babylon (A. D. 115). He then opened himself a passage into Persia, and made himself master of all the most fertile kingdoms

of Asia. After crowning and dethroning several kings, and placing governors and lieutenants in other provinces, he died at Seleucia, on his return to Rome, in the sixty-third year of his age, and after a reign of nineteen years, six months, and fifteen days.

(A. D. 117.) Adrian, who was by descent a Spaniard, nephew to Trajan, and married to Sabina, his grand-niece, by a forged instrument, was appointed successor to the throne, and elected emperor by all orders of the state. He was well skilled in the Greek and Latin languages, and intimately acquainted with the laws of his country, and the philosophy of the times. He soon began to pursue a course entirely different from that of his predecessor, and took every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. For this reason he abandoned all the conquests of Trajan, which he considered rather an inconvenience than an advantage to the empire, and made the river Euphrates the boundary of the eastern provinces, placing troops along its banks, to prevent the incursions of the enemy.

Adrian was highly skilful in all the exercises both of body and mind. He composed well both in prose and verse, and was an excellent orator. He was deeply versed in mathematics and physic, and was equal to the greatest masters in drawing and painting. He was remarkably expert in military discipline; strong and very skilful in arms, both on horseback and foot; and frequently killed wild boars, and even lions, in hunting.

His moral virtues equalled his other accomplishments. On his ascending the throne, he forgave an infinite number of debts due to the treasury from individuals and provinces; and he gave the estates of condemned persons to the public, instead of appropriating them to himself. His moderation and clemency appeared by his pardoning the injuries which he had received when he was only a private man. One day, he met a person who had formerly been his most inveterate enemy, and to whom he said, "My good friend, you have now escaped, for I am emperor." He was affable to his friends, and gentle to persons of meaner stations, whose wants he relieved, and whom he visited in sickness; it being his constant maxim, that he was an emperor not for his own good, but for the benefit of mankind. However, these virtues were contrasted by a strange mixture of vices, which arose chiefly

from a want of resolution. Thus he is represented as proud and vain glorious, envious and detractive, hasty and revengeful. He permitted the Christians to be persecuted, and, in many instances, shewed an irritable disposition, which it was the whole study of his life to correct or conceal.

(A. D. 121.) He visited in person all the provinces of the empire; for it was one of his maxims, that an emperor ought to imitate the sun, which diffuses warmth and vigour over all parts of the earth. In his progress he reformed all abuses, relieved his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilt the cities, and established in every country a regular and mild administration, under magistrates of approved integrity and humanity. He chose as his successor Marcus Antoninus, afterwards surnamed Pius, whom he previously obliged to adopt two others, namely, Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, all of whom afterwards succeeded to the empire. Adrian died as he was repeating some beautiful stanzas* of his own composing, on the separation of the soul from the body, in the sixty-second year of his age, and after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years, during which he reduced the laws of the empire into one regular code.

(A. D. 139.) Antoninus, who now succeeded to the imperial throne, was a native of Nesinis in Gaul, and was above fifty years old at the death of Adrian. His virtues in private life were only rendered more conspicuous by his exaltation; and he was distinguished for justice, clemency, moderation, purity of morals, and piety to the gods. By his frugal conduct, he was the better enabled to suppress

* *Animula vagula blandula,
Hospes comesque corporis;
Quæ nunc ab his in loca?
Pallidula, frigida, nudula,
Nec ut soles dabis jocos.*

Thus translated by Mr. Pope :

Oh fleeting spirit, wandering fire,
That long has warm'd my tender breast,
Wilt thou no more my frame inspire?
No more a pleasing cheerful guest?
Whither, ah! whither art thou flying,
To what dark, undiscover'd shore?
Thou seem'st all trembling, shivering, dying,
And wit and humour are no more.

all the insurrections which happened during his reign, either in Britain*, Dacia, or Germany. He was both revered and loved by mankind, and reckoned a patron and father of his subjects. He shewed no less paternal care towards the oppressed Christians, whom he declared no one should disturb on account of their religion. This clemency was attended with no less affability and freedom; but, at the same time, he took particular care, that his indulgence to his friends should not tempt them into insolence or oppression. He would not permit his courtiers to sell their favours, nor to receive any gratuity from their suitors. During a great famine in Rome, he provided for the wants of the people, and maintained an immense number with bread and wine (A. D. 155, U. C. 903). If any person attempted to inflame him with a passion for military glory, he only answered, "that he more desired the preservation of one subject than the destruction of a thousand enemies."

He was an eminent rewarder of learned men, whom he invited from all parts of the world, and raised to wealth and opulence. Among the rest, he sent for Apollonius, the famous stoic philosopher, to instruct his adopted son, Marcus Aurelius; and when Apollonius, after his arrival at Rome, refused to wait on his pupil, Antoninus sent Aurelius to him, and only observed, "that it was surprising how Apollonius, who made no difficulty of coming from Greece to Rome, should think it so hard to walk from one part of Rome to another." He studied rather to defend the Roman empire than to enlarge its boundaries, to render his people contented than to cause them to be feared. Whilst this exemplary prince was thus employed in making mankind happy, he was seized with a violent fever, of which he died in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years and almost eight months.

(A. D. 163, U. C. 911.) His adopted son, Marcus Aurelius, though left sole successor to the throne, admitted Lucius Verus as his associate in the empire; and Rome, for the first time, saw itself governed by two sovereigns of equal power, but of very different merit and pretensions. Aurelius was as remarkable for his virtues and accomplish-

* He built a wall in Britain to defend it from the incursions of the barbarians of the north.

ments, as Verus was for his ungovernable passions and debauched morals. The former was an example of the greatest goodness and wisdom; the latter, of ignorance, indolence, and dissipation.

Soon after the two emperors were settled on the throne, the empire was attacked on every side by the barbarians. The Catti invaded Germany and Rhetia, ravaging all with fire and sword; but, after some time, they were repelled by Victorinus. The Britons also revolted, but were repressed by Calpurnius. The Parthians, under their king Vologeses, made an irruption more dreadful than either of the former; destroying the Roman legions in Armenia, and then entering Syria, and driving out the Roman governor. In order to stop the progress of this barbarous invasion, Verus himself went in person, after receiving the most judicious advice, and being furnished with the most able assistants by his colleague. But Verus neglected every admonition, and thoughtless of the urgency of the expedition, he plunged himself into every kind of debauchery, and left all the glory of the field to his lieutenants, who were sent to repress the enemy. The army of Verus carried back the plague from Parthia, and disseminated the infection in all the provinces through which it passed; while this profligate wretch appeared equally insensible of humanity or shame. Verus, however, was seized with an apoplexy, of which he died, in a journey from Aquileia to Rome, having reigned nine years in conjunction with Aurelius (A. D. 171.)

Aurelius, who had hitherto felt the fatigues, not only of governing an empire, but of controlling an unworthy colleague, being now left to himself, began to act with still greater diligence and success. He marched against the Marcomanni, the Quadi, the Sarmatians, the Vandals, and other barbarians, who had renewed hostilities with unusual rage and devastation, and whom, after some years of warfare, he constrained to accept such terms of peace as he thought fit to propose. In short, the residue of his reign was a continual blessing to his subjects. He reformed the internal policy of the state, regulated the government of the provinces, and visited, for the purposes of beneficence, the most distant parts of his dominions. An ancient author says, "He appeared like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness." He died in Pannonia, in the fifty-

ninth year of his age, and after reigning nineteen years and some days.

The glory and prosperity of the Roman empire seemed to die with Aurelius. From this period we behold a train of emperors either vicious or impotent; an empire grown too great, sinking by its own weight, surrounded by barbarous and successful enemies without, and torn by ambitious and cruel factions within; the principles of the times wholly corrupted; philosophy attempting to regulate the minds of men without the aid of religion; and the warmth of patriotism, as well as the flame of genius, gradually verging to extinction.

(A. D. 181, U. C. 929.) Commodus, the son of Aurelius, though believed by many to be the spurious issue of a gladiator, mounted the throne with a partiality gained by his father's merits. He was now about nineteen years of age; his person was comely and robust; he was expert in all manly exercises, and threw the javelin and shot from the bow with such wonderful address, and certainty of aim, as almost exceeds credibility. Happy had it been both for himself and for mankind, if he had cultivated the exercises of the mind with as much attention as he did those of the body.

Though he behaved well for a short time after his accession, yet the levity of his temper, and the corrupt examples of his favourite companions, soon led him to the basest and meanest pursuits. He frequented taverns and brothels, and spent the day in feasting, and the night in the most abominable debaucheries. He even committed incest with his own sisters. Sometimes, as a petty chapman, he sold small wares in the markets; sometimes he imitated a horse-courser, and at other times drove his own chariot in the habit of a slave. He took little care of the government, which he committed to one Perennius, who was remarkable chiefly for his avarice and cruelty. In short, the whole reign of Commodus was only a tissue of wantonness and folly, cruelty and injustice, rapacity and corruption. His concubine and some of his chief officers prevented their own destruction, by assassinating the tyrant, in the thirty-second year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

The conspirators invested Helvius Pertinax, prefect of the city, with the purple; and after the soldiers had proclaimed him emperor, the citizens and senate also con-

sented (A. D. 192, U. C. 940). He was in the sixty-eighth year of his age when he began to reign; and though a man of mean birth, he had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; and his success in foreign affairs was equal to the assiduity which he evinced in his internal policy. But the prætorian soldiers, whose manners he attempted to reform, and who had been long corrupted by the indulgence and profusion of former monarchs, began to hate him for the parsimony and discipline which he introduced among them, and resolved to dethrone him. Accordingly, they marched in a tumultuous manner through the streets of Rome, and, entering the palace without opposition, struck the emperor, who fell mangled with a multitude of wounds. Thus, after a reign of three months, died Pertinax, who, from the number of his adventures, was called the Tennis-ball of Fortune.

(A. D. 192, U. C. 940.) The prætorian army then made proclamation that they would sell the empire to the highest bidder. Sulpician and Didius Julius were the only two persons who accepted their invitation, and entered into the competition proposed. The former was of consular dignity, præfect of the city, and son-in-law to the late emperor Pertinax; the latter was also of consular rank, a great lawyer, and the wealthiest man in the city. Sulpician, however, was outbid by his competitor, and the empire was literally knocked down to Didius Julius, for six thousand two hundred and fifty drachmas, to be immediately paid to each of the soldiers*. On being conducted to the senate-house, he said to the few senators who were present, "Fathers, you want an emperor, and I am the fittest person you can choose." This speech being backed by the army, the choice of the soldiers was confirmed by the senate. Didius gave himself up to ease and inactivity, utterly regardless of the duties of his station. He was mild and gentle indeed; but he was still followed by that avarice by which he had become opulent, and which soon rendered him contemptible to the army.

In the mean time, Pescennius Niger in Asia, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Severus in Illyria, were

* The whole sum paid by Didius, amounted to about two millions of our money.

each chosen emperor by the troops under their command. The senate, perceiving the timidity and weakness of Didius, began to abandon him, declaring that he who could not defend the empire, was unworthy to govern it. Didius, therefore, being put to death, they sent ambassadors to Severus, yielding him obedience, and granting him the insignia and the usual titles of empire. Accordingly, Severus, who was now about forty-seven years of age, having made himself master of Rome, prepared to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Niger and of Albinus. These two rivals were successively subdued and slain, and Severus treated their dead bodies with insults which marked a sanguinary and revengeful temper.

(A. D. 198.) He next turned his arms against the Parthians, who were invading the frontiers of the empire, and whom he attacked with his usual celerity and success (A. D. 208, U. C. 956). He afterwards undertook an expedition into Britain, and marching against the Caledonians, who had cruelly harassed the Roman settlements, compelled them to sue for peace. For the better security of Britain, he built that famous wall which is still called by his name, and which extends from Solway Frith on the west to the German ocean on the east. He was taken ill at York; and feeling his end approaching, said, "When I took the empire upon me, I found it declining and exhausted: I now leave it strong and lasting to my sons, if they prove virtuous; but feeble and desperate, if otherwise." He died soon after, in the eighteenth year of his reign, in which he had displayed considerable talents and virtues, mixed with many blemishes.

(A. D. 211.) Caracalla and Geta, the sons of Severus, being left joint heirs to the empire, soon shewed a mutual hatred to each other; and Rome experienced the dangerous effects of being governed by two princes of equal power and contrary dispositions. Caracalla, however, being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms. This monster soon exceeded the enormities of Domitian, or of Nero.

Lælius, who advised him to murder his brother, was the first that fell a sacrifice to his jealousy; his own wife, Plautina, followed; and Papinian, a renowned civilian, was beheaded for refusing to write in vindication of his

cruelty, answering the emperor's request by observing, "that it was much easier to commit a fratricide, than to defend it." He commanded all governors appointed by his brother to be slain, and put to death not less than two thousand of his adherents. He spent whole nights in the execution of his bloody decrees; and the dead bodies of people, of all ranks, were carried out of the city in carts, and burnt in heaps, without the customary rites. Upon a certain occasion he ordered his soldiers to attack a crowded audience in the theatre, merely because they discountenanced a charioteer, whom he happened to favour. He perceived that he was hated by the people, and publicly declared, "that he could ensure his own safety, though not their love; so that he neither valued their reproaches, nor feared their hatred."

After exhausting the treasury, draining the provinces, and committing a thousand acts of rapacity, merely to retain his soldiers in his interest, Caracalla resolved to lead them upon a visit through every part of the empire (A. D. 213). In Germany, he dressed himself in the habit of the country, that he might oblige the natives. In Macedonia, he pretended to be a great admirer of Alexander the Great, whose statue he caused to be made with two faces, one of which resembled Alexander, and the other himself; and he was so corrupted by flattery, that he called himself Alexander, and affected the walk and gesture of that hero. In the amphitheatre at Alexandria, in Egypt, he cut off great numbers, only for having passed some jests upon his person and vices; and the slaughter was so great, that the streams of blood tinged the waters of the Nile. His reign, which was of six years duration, was one continued scene of atrocities, and was at length terminated by assassination.

(A. D. 217.) The military having now monopolized all power to themselves, invested Macrinus, who was fifty-three years of age, and of obscure parentage, with the purple, and the senate confirmed the choice. They also consented to the adoption of his son Diadumenus, whom he took as a partner in the empire. The Roman army was now arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness, that the most gentle inflictions were considered as severity; and the soldiers becoming dissatisfied with the discipline of Macrinus, he and his son Diadumenus were put to death, after a short and undistinguished reign of one year and two months.

(A. D. 218, U. C. 966.) The appointment of the army controlling, as usual, the decision of the senate and citizens of Rome, Heliogabalus, the natural son of Caracalla, and priest of a temple dedicated to the sun, at Emesa, ascended the throne at the age of fourteen years. He was directed entirely by favourites, and was a monster of sensuality. His short life, therefore, is a tissue only of effeminacy, lust, folly, and extravagance. In the space of four years, he married six wives, and divorced them all; and he assumed even the quality of a woman, and married one of his officers. He built a senate-house for women, with suitable orders, habits, and distinctions, and made his mother president. To these follies, he added extreme cruelty and boundless prodigality. His suppers generally cost six thousand crowns, and often sixty thousand: he always dressed in cloth of gold and purple, enriched with precious stones, and never wore the same habit twice; and his palace, his chambers, and his beds, were all furnished with the richest stuffs, covered with gold and jewels. In short, all his government, actions, dress, and furniture, testified the extravagant folly of a wanton and vicious boy. Thus, sometimes he was seen driving elephants yoked to his chariot; sometimes, mastiff dogs; sometimes he was drawn by lions; and at other times, by four naked women. In testimony of the magnitude of the city, he caused ten thousand pounds weight of spiders' webs to be collected. He even invited his guests in the same spirit of absurdity; for he gave a feast to eight old men, eight bald men, eight men blind of one eye, eight lame with the gout, eight deaf men, eight black men, and eight so fat that they could scarcely sit at the same table. To these childish tricks, which might pass for harmless follies, he united malevolence with every entertainment. He often smothered his guests in rooms filled with roses, and terrified them by letting loose among them wild beasts previously deprived of their teeth and claws. It is even said, that he strove to foretell what was to happen, by inspecting the entrails of young men sacrificed, and that he chose the most beautiful youths throughout Italy to be slain for that purpose. He adopted his cousin-german, Alexander, as his successor, who so greatly endeared himself to the people and the army, that the soldiers assassinated Heliogabalus, after a detestable reign of four years, and threw his body into the Tiber, with heavy weights, that none might afterwards bury it.

(A. D. 222, U. C. 970.) Alexander was declared emperor without any opposition, and few princes have deserved greater commendations. He superadded the greatest humanity to the most rigid justice. He loved the good, and severely reproved the lewd and the infamous. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and musician, and was equally skilful in painting, sculpture, and poetry. In short, such were his talents, and the solidity of his judgment, that, though only sixteen years old, he possessed all the wisdom of age.

Alexander spent the first part of his reign in reforming the abuses of his predecessors, and, particularly, in restoring the senators to their rank and influence. Merit was the only passport to his protection; and he would not permit offices or places to be purchased with money. "I cannot," said he, "bear to see merchants in authority: if I first allow them to be such, I cannot afterwards condemn their conduct; for how could I punish the person who sold, when I first permitted him to be a buyer?" He was, therefore, a rigid punisher of such magistrates as took bribes, saying "that it was not enough to deprive such of their places, but that their lives in most cases ought to pay for a breach of their duty." On the contrary, he thought that he could never sufficiently reward such as were remarkable for their justice and integrity, keeping a register of their names, and encouraging those who seemed modest and unwilling to approach him.

He extended his clemency even to the Christians, who had been punished in the former reign with unrelenting barbarity. A contest happening between them and a company of cooks and vintners, about a piece of ground, which the one claimed as a place of worship, and the other for exercising their respective trades, he decided the dispute by his rescript, in the following words: "It is better that God be worshipped there in any manner, than that the place should be put to uses of drunkenness or debauchery." His abilities in war were not inferior to his assiduity in peace; and the empire, which, from the remissness and debauchery of the preceding reigns, now began to be attacked on all sides, wanted a person of such vigour and conduct to defend it. Alexander faced the enemy wherever the invasion was most formidable, and for a short time deferred the ruin of the empire. However,

after a glorious reign of thirteen years, which, from his virtues, deserved to have been protracted to a much longer period, this excellent prince was cut off by a mutiny among his own soldiers, who had been abominably corrupted during the reign of Heliogabalus, and who had been trained up to all kinds of rapine and disobedience.

(A. D. 235.) Maximin, who had been the chief promoter of the sedition, was elected emperor, though the senate and the people of Rome refused to confirm the choice of the army. This extraordinary man was the son of a poor herdsman of Thrace, and in the early part of his life followed the humble profession of his father. After enlisting into the Roman army, he soon became remarkable for his great strength, discipline, and courage. He was eight feet and a half high, and was not more remarkable for the magnitude, than for the symmetry of his person. He was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He commonly ate forty pounds weight of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without committing any debauch. With so athletic a frame, he possessed an independent and undaunted mind.

He was the first emperor that reigned without the concurrence or approbation of the Roman senate. He seemed regardless of their opposition, and put all such to death as had been raised by his predecessor. He also extended his cruelty to the rich, whose lives and estates were sacrificed to avarice and suspicion.

However, his cruelties did not retard his military operations, which were carried on with a spirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in several engagements, wasted all their country with fire and sword, for four hundred miles together (A. D. 236), and formed a resolution of subduing all the northern nations as far as the ocean. In these expeditions, he endeavoured to attach the soldiers more firmly to him, by increasing their pay; and in every duty of the camp, he himself took as much pains as the meanest sentinel in his army. Where the conflict was hottest, Maximin was seen fighting in person, and destroying all before him; for, according to the notions in which he had been bred, he considered it no less his duty to combat as a common soldier, than to command as a general.

In the mean time, the Christians, who had found favour in the former reign, felt the weight of his resent-

ment, and were persecuted in several parts of the empire. What, however, fixed an indelible disgrace on his memory, was, his commanding his early friends, and the friends of his parents, to be put to death, that the meanness of his extraction might be the better concealed. From partial insurrections, a spirit of general discontent spread throughout all the empire; and the provinces of Africa obliged Gordian, the proconsul, to accept of the imperial dignity, and declared him, and his son Gordian, who was forty-six years of age, emperors of Rome. This election was joyfully confirmed by the senate, who adjudged Maximin an enemy and a traitor to the state. However, the Gordians being defeated, and the younger of them slain in battle, the father strangled himself in his own girdle. Nothing now could exceed the consternation of the senate, who, deprived of the assistance of Gordian and his son, assembled with great solemnity in the temple of Jupiter, and, after mature deliberation, chose Pupienus and Balbinus joint emperors. At length, Maximin, and his son, who he had made his partner in the empire, were assassinated by the soldiers, who threw their bodies to the dogs (A. D. 238, U. C. 986). Thus died Maximin, whose assiduity in a humble station, and whose cruelty in power, served to evince, that the virtues of some men are fitted only for obscurity.

Pupienus and Balbinus continued for some time to discharge the duties of their station without opposition; but the prætorian soldiers, who had long been notorious for mutiny and treason, resolving on a farther change, the dissensions of the two emperors contributed to their downfall. The seditious soldiers, dragging them from the palace towards the camp, dispatched them, and left their bodies in the streets.

The mutineers accidentally met Gordian, the grandson of him who was slain in Africa, and declared him emperor on the spot; and the senate and the people, who had long been reduced to the necessity of permitting their emperors to be nominated by the army, confirmed their choice. This prince was only sixteen years old when he began to reign, but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. He endeavoured to unite the opposing members of the government, and to reconcile the soldiers and citizens to each other. His learning was equal to his virtues; and he had in his library sixty-two

thousand books. He had such respect for Misithæus, his governor and instructor, that he married his daughter and profited by his counsels, in all the critical circumstances of his reign. This excellent prince was murdered by Philip, an Arabian, whom he had appointed his successor, after a successful reign of nearly six years, in which he had done much to merit respect, and little to deserve censure.

(A. D. 244, U. C. 992.) Philip having thus dispatched his benefactor, was acknowledged emperor by the army and the senate, when about forty years of age. He associated his son, a boy six years old, as his partner in the empire; and his government was signalized by acts of goodness and mildness. At the celebration of the secular games, both Philip and his son are said to have been converted to Christianity; but a murderer, as well as an ungrateful usurper, can do little honour to any faith. The army, however, revolting in favour of Decius, one of his generals, Philip was killed in the forty-fifth year of his age, and after a reign of about five years.

(A. D. 249.) Decius was proclaimed emperor by the soldiers, whom the senate and the people durst not oppose. The activity and wisdom of this sovereign seemed in some measure to stop the hastening decline of the Roman empire. The senate thought so highly of his merits, that they voted him not inferior to Trajan; and, indeed, in every instance, he seemed to consult their dignity in particular, and the welfare of all the inferior ranks of the people. Among other concessions, he allowed a censor to be elected, as was customary in the flourishing times of Rome; and Valerian, his general, who was a man of such strict morals that his life was said to be a continual censorship, was chosen to that dignity.

No virtues, however, could prevent the approaching downfall of the state, which was enfeebled beyond the power of a remedy, by the obstinate disputes between the pagans and the Christians within the empire, and by the unceasing irruptions of barbarous nations. To check the former, a furious persecution was commenced against the Christians, who were now grown the most numerous body of the people; thousands of them being put to death, and all the arts of cruelty ineffectually tried to lessen their increasing numbers.

This impolitic and unjust persecution was succeeded

by a dreadful devastation from the Goths, particularly in Thrace and Mœsia. Having marched an army against the invaders, Decius was led by the treachery of Gallus, one of his generals, into a defile, where the king of the Goths had secret information to attack him. After seeing his son killed, and his army totally routed, Decius, in an agony of despair, put spurs to his horse, and instantly plunging into a quagmire, was swallowed up. He died in the fiftieth year of his age, after a short reign of two years and six months, leaving the character of an excellent prince, had he been called to power in happier times.

(A. D. 251) The treacherous Gallus had sufficient address to get himself declared emperor by that part of the army which survived, and his title was acknowledged by the senate and the people. He agreed to pay a considerable annual tribute to the Goths for their forbearance, and was the first that bought a dishonourable peace from the enemies of his country.

The state of the Roman provinces at this period was extremely deplorable. The Goths, and other barbarous people, not satisfied with the late bribes to continue in peace, rushed like a torrent upon the eastern parts of Europe; whilst, on the other side, the Persians and the Scythians committed dreadful ravages in Mesopotamia and Syria. Regardless of every national calamity, the emperor passed his time in debauch and sensuality at home; and the pagans were permitted to persecute the Christians without restraint. These calamities were succeeded by a dreadful pestilence, which was followed by a civil war between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who, having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his army, and defeated and slew Gallus in the forty-seventh year of his age, after a disgraceful reign of two years and four months, in which the empire suffered inexpressible misery. An army, however, stationed near the Alps, chose Valerian, their own commander, to succeed to the throne (A. D. 253). The attempts of Valerian to reform the state marked a good mind and an unabated vigour; but he was taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, who treated him with great cruelty and indignity. Sapor, we are told, always used him as a footstool for mounting his horse; and adding the bitterness of ridicule to his insults, he usually observed, that such an attitude

was the best statue that could be erected in honour of his victory. At length, after suffering a horrid life for seven years, his eyes were plucked out, and he was flayed alive.

(A. D. 259.) On the captivity of Valerian, his son Gallienus, was chosen emperor, in whose reign the Germans and other barbarous nations attacked the empire on all sides. But, though the empire was afflicted throughout with pestilence and famine; though the Germans over-ran Rætia; though the Allemans wasted Gaul; though the Goths, the Quadi, and the Sarmatians, poured forth from their forests, and carried desolation every where; Gallienus remained in the utmost tranquillity at Rome, inventing new pleasures, and passing his time in luxury and debauchery. When informed of the loss of his provinces, or the calamities of the state, he answered only with a jest, and in a short time his power was little more than a mere mockery. However, he was slain by his own soldiers at the siege of Milan, and left the character of being a friend only to prostitutes, mimics, parasites, and buffoons.

(A. D. 268, U. C. 1015.) The army now nominated Flavius Claudius emperor, and his title was joyfully confirmed by the senate and the people. Of the parentage and country of Claudius, nothing is certainly known; but whatever they might be, his merits were by no means doubtful. He was a man of great valour and conduct, and had performed the most excellent services against the Goths, who had long continued to make irruptions into the empire. He was now about fifty-five years old, and was equally remarkable for the strength of his body and the vigour of his mind; he was chaste and temperate, a rewarder of the good, and a severe punisher of those who transgressed the laws. In some measure, he arrested the decline of the empire, and, once more, seemed to restore a portion of the glory of Rome. His reign was active and successful. He died of a pestilential fever, and is said to have united in himself the moderation of Augustus, the valour of Trajan, and the piety of Antoninus.

(A. D. 270, U. C. 1018.) Immediately after the lamented death of Claudius, the army made choice of Aurelian, who was born of mean and obscure parentage in Dacia, and who was of unshaken courage and amazing strength. The whole of this enterprising monarch's reign was spent in repressing the irruptions of the northern nations, in humbling every other pretender to the empire, and in punishing

the monstrous irregularities of his own subjects. After restoring peace to the empire, he endeavoured also to bring back virtue by the strictest justice. He was very rigid in punishing the crimes of the soldiers, and took care that the peasantry should not be plundered, upon any pretence, of the smallest article of their property. In executing justice, he frequently degenerated into cruelty; but the vices of the times, in some measure, seemed to require it. In the punishment which he inflicted on the guilty, or on those who were so reputed, the Christians were sharers. Against these he drew up several letters and edicts, preparatory to a very severe persecution; but if we may believe the historians of the times, he was deterred from signing them, by a thunderbolt which fell so near his person, that his escape was considered as miraculous. He was slain by a conspiracy in the sixtieth, or, as some say, in the sixty-fifth, year of his age.

(A. D. 276.) Sometime after the death of Aurelian, the senate made choice of Tacitus, who was a man of great merit, and no way ambitious of the honours which were offered to him. He was extremely temperate in every part of his conduct. He was fond of learning, and the memory of those who had deserved well of their country; and, in particular, he greatly honoured the works of his namesake, Tacitus, the historian. These he caused to be placed in every public library throughout the empire, and ordered that many copies of them should be transcribed at the public charge. After enjoying the empire about six months, he died of a fever, on his march to repress an invasion of the Persians and the Scythians.

On the death of Tacitus, the army elevated to the throne Probus, who was a great general, and an excellent statesman; generous, affable, equitable, and an enemy to vice. He was born of noble parentage at Sirmium, in Pannonia, and bred up a soldier from his youth. He repressed the invasions of the Germans and other nations, and was slain by a conspiracy of his own soldiers, who, as an instance even of their esteem, erected to him a sumptuous monument, with the following epitaph:—"Here lies the emperor Probus, truly deserving the name; a subduer of barbarians, and a conqueror of usurpers."

(A. D. 282, U. C. 1030.) The army chose Carus, who was prætorian præfect to the deceased emperor, as his successor. He united his two sons, Carinus and Numerian, with him in

command, and was struck dead by lightning in his tent. Numetian brought such a disorder on his eyes by weeping for the death of his father, that he was obliged to be carried along with the army shut up in a close litter. After some time, the peculiarity of his situation excited the ambition of Aper, his father-in-law, who hired a mercenary villain to murder the emperor in his litter; and the better to conceal the fact, he reported that he was still alive, but unable to endure the light. In this manner the dead body was carried about for some days, Aper continuing to attend it with the utmost appearance of respect, and seeming to receive orders as usual. However, the offensiveness of the smell at length discovering the treachery, Dioclesian, one of the most noted commanders of his time, was chosen emperor by the army, and slew Aper with his own hand, thereby fulfilling a prophecy, that he should be emperor after he had slain a boar*.

(A. D. 284.) Dioclesian was the son of a servener, or as others say, of a slave, and was born at Dioclea, whence he obtained his name. When elected to the empire, he was about forty years of age, and owed his exaltation entirely to his merit; for he had passed through all the gradations of office, with sagacity, courage, and success. The beginning of his reign did not in the least deceive the expectations which his subjects had formed in his favour. He pardoned all his enemies, and injured neither their fortunes nor their honours.

In this reign happened the tenth and last great persecution of the Christians, which is said to have exceeded all the former in severity, and was carried on with such zeal, that in an ancient inscription we are informed, that "the government had effaced the name and superstition of the Christians, and had restored and propagated the worship of the gods." However, their attempts were only the efforts of an expiring party; for Christianity was soon after established by law, and triumphed over the malice of its enemies.

Dioclesian introduced a new system of administration, dividing the empire into four governments, under as many princes. Maximian, his general, shared with him the title of Augustus; and Galerius and Constantius Chlorus, to whom he married his daughter-in-law, were created Cæsars.

* The word *aper* in Latin signifies a boar.

Each had his separate department or province; and all were nominally supreme, but in reality under the superior talents and authority of Dioclesian; an unwise policy, which depended for its efficacy on individual ability alone. Dioclesian and Maximian, trusting to the continuance of that order in the empire, which their vigour had established, retired from sovereignty, and left the government in the hands of the Cæsars. Dioclesian removed to the place of his birth, where he spent his time in cultivating his garden, assuring his visitors, that he only then began to enjoy the world, when he was thought by the rest of mankind to have forsaken it. His reign continued twenty years, and was active and useful; and his authority, which was tinged with severity, was adapted to the depraved state of morals at that time.

(A. D. 305.) On the resignation of the two emperors, the Cæsars, whom they had formerly chosen, were universally acknowledged as their successors. Constantius, surnamed Chlorus from the paleness of his complexion, was virtuous, valiant, and merciful; but Galerius, though brave, was brutal, incontinent, and cruel. Constantius was appointed to govern the western, and Galerius the eastern parts of the empire. The former comprehended Italy, Sicily, the greater part of Africa, together with Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Germany; the latter, Illyricum, Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia, all the provinces of Greece and the Lesser Asia, together with Egypt, Syria, Judea, and all other oriental countries. However, the greatness of the task soon induced them to take in two partners more, Severus and Maximin, who were created Cæsars, and invested with supreme authority. Constantius died in Britain, and with his last breath appointed his son Constantine his successor. Galerius, however, refused to acknowledge his title, but died of a very extraordinary and cruel disorder.

(A. D. 311.) Constantine, afterwards surnamed the Great, seems to have possessed a preponderance of power at this period; but the government, in fact, was divided between him and three others: Maxentius, who tyrannized in Rome, a cruel and bigoted polytheist; Licinius, whom Galerius had adopted, and who commanded in the East; and Maximin, who had formerly been declared Cæsar, and who also governed a few of the provinces in the same quarter. It is said by Eusebius, that Constantine, who

was then in Gaul, having seen in the heavens a pillar of light, in the figure of a cross, with this inscription *TOYTO NIKH*. By this overcome, he caused a royal standard to be made, resembling that which he had beheld, and commanded it to be carried before him in the wars, as an ensign of victory and celestial protection. He also made a public avowal of Christianity; and having attached to him soldiers who were mostly of the Christian persuasion, he marched his army almost to the very gates of Rome, where a fierce and bloody engagement was fought, in which Maxentius was defeated, and drowned in attempting to cross the Tiber. Maximin suffered also an overthrow, and died soon after. For some time, Constantine and Licinius reigned peaceably together; but a difference taking place, an engagement ensued, in which Licinius being defeated, was permitted to spend the remainder of his days in retirement (A. D. 323).

Constantine being now left without a rival to divide his power, or any person from whose claims he could have the least apprehensions, resolved to establish Christianity on a solid basis. He had already forbidden the execution on the cross, as derogatory to the Christian religion; and he had erected churches for the worship of God: he now commanded, that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the bishops should be exactly obeyed; and Arius, having promulged some heretical tenets, was tried before the council of Nice, and banished (A. D. 325).

(A. D. 330, U. C. 1078.) Probably on account of some disgust, Constantine transferred the seat of the empire from Rome to Byzantium, or, as it was afterwards called, Constantinople. The empire had long been verging to ruin; but this impolitic measure precipitated its downfall. Like a tender exotic, it gradually languished, and at length sunk into annihilation.

However, the ideas of Constantine were vast and worthy of an ambitious mind. He designed to build a city, which at once might be the capital and metropolis of the world. For this purpose, he made choice of a situation at Chalcedon, in Asia Minor; but we are told, that, in laying out the ground-plan, an eagle caught up the line, and flew with it over to Byzantium, a city on the opposite side of the Bosphorus. It was, therefore, thought expedient to fix the seat of empire in this place, which was situated on a plain that rose gently from the water; it commanded that strait

which unites the Mediterranean with the Euxine Sea; and it was furnished with all the advantages which the most genial climate could bestow. He beautified this city with the most magnificent edifices; divided it into fourteen regions; built a capitol, an amphitheatre, many churches, and other public works; and having thus rendered it equal to the magnificence of his idea, he dedicated it, in a very solemn manner, to the God of martyrs; and in about two years after, repaired thither with his whole court.* Constantine, however, did not live to feel the calamities resulting from his impolicy. He died of an intermitting fever, after a memorable and active reign of almost thirty-two years (A. D. 337). The Christian writers of that period have adorned his character with every strain of panegyric; and the heathens, on the contrary, have loaded it with the virulence of invective. It seems, however, to have been composed of a mixture of virtues and vices, of piety and credulity, of courage and cruelty, of justice and ambition. He established a religion, which continues to be the blessing of mankind, but pursued a scheme of politics which hastened the fall of the Roman empire.

Constantine left by the empress Fausta three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans, whom he had successively invested with the purple, and placed in situations of great power and trust. He had also conferred the title of Cæsar on his nephews, Dalmatius and Annibalianus, to each of whom he had assigned his peculiar inheritance. However, after the death of Constantine, the ministers and generals at the court of Constantinople, engaged in secret consultations to exclude the nephews of the deceased emperor from the succession which he had intended for them, and procured a declaration from the soldiers, that the sons of Constantine alone should participate in the empire.

A disagreement taking place between Constantine, the eldest son of the late emperor, and Constans, his brother, the former was drawn into an ambuscade, where he was slain with his attendants (A. D. 350). Ten years afterwards, Constans was killed by Magnentius, an ambitious general of barbarian extraction, who assumed the diadem, but who, being defeated by Constantius, and finding his affairs desperate, fell upon his sword.

* From this period, to the destruction of the western empire, the histories of Rome and Constantinople are of necessity blended.

The whole Roman empire was once more united under the sway of Constantius, over whom the eunuchs established an undue influence, and who was alternately governed by his fears, his indolence, and his vanity. Finding himself unequal to the sole government of such a mighty empire—which was surrounded by barbarous nations, Constantius, in opposition to the advice of most of the eunuchs, married his cousin Julian to his sister Helena, and appointed him as Cæsar, to reign over the countries beyond the Alps. Julian was sent into Gaul, where the empire was menaced by the barbarians; and his first campaign was so fortunate, that his success determined the emperor to increase his authority.

Whilst the Cæsar scarcely passed a day without a conflict, Constantius led a life of indolence, wasted his time in theological controversies, or in endeavouring by several sanguinary edicts to root out idolatry and divination. With every talent of a general, and possessing the confidence and affection of his troops, Julian once more restored the glory of the Roman arms, and successfully repressed the invasions of the barbarians. His victories excited the jealousy of Constantius, who, as he pretended, on account of the magnitude of the king of Persia's preparations against the empire, required from the Cæsar a reinforcement of his chosen troops.

This peremptory order reached Julian at a moment of difficulty and danger, when the Picts and Scots were ravaging Britain, and gave him the most sensible uneasiness; to aggravate which, he had every reason to apprehend that, should his forces be diminished, the Germans, whom fear only restrained, would soon re-enter Gaul.

However, he determined, in this critical situation, to sacrifice his feelings to his duty, and shew the promptitude of his obedience to the imperial will. He, therefore, sent for Decentius, who was charged with the emperor's commission, and professed his acquiescence; but hinted, that the troops required had enlisted on condition of not being compelled to pass the Alps, and that there would be danger in violating the engagement.

The prediction was fully verified by the event. No sooner was Decentius ready to depart with the troops, than the murmurs of dissatisfactions spread from tent to tent, and at last the soldiers openly complained, that they were sent to the extremity of the world, and obliged to leave their

wives, their children, and their friends, a prey to the barbarians. To remove this cause of opposition, Julian permitted them to take their families with them, and offered them conveyances at the public expence. The commander did not think it reasonable to refuse the indulgence which they ardently begged, of being permitted to bid their general farewell. Julian spoke to them with kindness, gratefully acknowledged their past exploits, and recommended to them a prompt and cheerful obedience to the commands of Constantius. The soldiers heard the latter part of his speech in gloomy silence; and the officers, whom the Cæsar had entertained, after retiring from the feast, mutually lamented the severity of their fate, which tore them from a general whom they loved, and from a country which contained all they held dear. A conspiracy, the only expedient which could prevent the dreaded separation, was proposed, as has been imagined, by some warm partisans of Julian, and approved by the whole army. The ferment continued to increase; and at midnight, the impatient multitude encompassed the palace of the Cæsar, and pronounced the irrevocable words, "Julian Augustus."

For some time, Julian strenuously rejected the proffered honour; but being informed by the soldiers, "that if he wished to live, he must consent to reign," he accepted the dignity of Augustus, and sent ambassadors to apologize to Constantius, and to concede every thing, except the sovereignty of the provinces beyond the Alps with all their appendant royalties, which he claimed in full right. Constantius, however, required him to renounce the rank of Augustus, and acknowledge himself a dependant on the supreme head of the empire. Julian, therefore, had made considerable progress towards establishing himself not only as a partner, but as paramount of the empire, when he was informed of the almost sudden death of Constantius, who breathed his last in the forty fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. This prince was temperate, but uxorious, and inherited the defects without the abilities of his father. In religion, he was rather a sectary than a Christian.

(A. D. 361.) Julian now acquired the undisturbed possession of the Roman empire; and the reformation of civil abuses formed the first object of his attention. He then endeavoured to suppress Christianity. For this purpose, he began by reforming the pagan theology, and sought to

raise the character of its priests, by inculcating purity of life and sanctity of morals; thereby bearing involuntary testimony to the superior excellence of that religion, which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting, he attacked the Christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from employments and offices of trust.

This prince, after ascending the throne, seems to have given himself up wholly to the duties of his station. He suffered neither his body nor his mind to be relaxed by sensual indulgences: a hasty dinner succeeded a morning spent in business; his supper was still more light; and after a short interval of rest, he was awakened by the entrance of fresh secretaries, who had slept the preceding day. He disdained alike the amusements of the theatre and the circus; and he wrapped himself up in pagan philosophy, with which his mind had been early imbued. Though of a low stature and an unpleasing aspect, yet he was well made, active, and uncommonly expert in all his exercises. His memory was extremely tenacious, and he discovered much penetration and presence of mind. He seemed to possess a love of freedom; and though his apostacy has tarnished the lustre of his character, he was not wholly destitute of liberality, even to those who opposed his favourite prejudices.

A father having disinherited his son, in consequence of his renouncing Christianity for paganism, Julian ordered them both into his presence, and thus addressed the father: "I think nothing more unreasonable than the use of force in matters of religion. Allow your son to follow one different from yours, as I do you to profess one different from mine, though it is in my power to oblige you to renounce it." The father answered, "What can you say in favour of a wretch detested by Heaven, who has preferred falsehood to truth, and abjured the faith of the true God, to bend the knee before an idol?" To this the emperor replied, "Here invectives are ill placed;" and then addressing himself to the son, he said, "Since your father is deaf to your entreaties, and pays no regard to my recommendation, I will take care of you."

The restoration of the ancient temple at Jerusalem, attracted the ambitious mind of the emperor, who hoped.

that the completion of such an undertaking would at least furnish a specious argument against the faith of prophecy, and the truth of the Christian revelation; but neither the power of a great monarch, the resources of an empire, nor the enthusiasm of the Jewish people, who contributed both their fortune and their labour, could effectuate the purpose. Ammianus Marcellinus asserts, "That horrible balls of fire breaking out from the foundations, with frequent and reiterated attacks, rendered the place, from time to time, inaccessible to the scorched and blasted workmen; and the victorious element continuing in this manner obstinately and resolutely bent, as it were, to drive them to a distance, the undertaking was entirely abandoned."

Julian, as a pagan, was a slave to the most bigoted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with an actual intercourse of the gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had suffered from the Persians, he marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time victorious, but was slain in a fatal engagement (A. D. 362), at the age of thirty-one, and after a reign of one year and eight months from the death of Constantius. Infidels have exalted his character to the highest pitch of perfection; whilst Christians have thrown a dark shade even over those virtues which he really possessed. In fact, he appears to have been a compound of good and bad qualities; and it was probably fortunate for the world, that the latter had not time to develope their full malignity.

(A. D. 363.) The Roman troops were dispirited by the death of their commander, but at length chose for their emperor Jovian, a captain of the domestic guards, who purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia, by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been formerly ceded to Galerius. Jovian favoured Christianity, and restored to its votaries all their privileges as subjects. Having indulged freely at supper, he retired to rest, and was found dead in his bed, after a mild and equitable reign of almost twelve months.

(A. D. 364.) The Roman throne remained without a master ten days; after which, Valentinian, a native of Cibalis, in Pannonia, who, by his matchless strength and dexterity, had gained the esteem and respect of the army, was elected emperor by the soldiers. He associated with himself in the government his brother Valens, and oc-

casioned the final separation of the Western and Eastern empires, by assigning to his colleague the prefecture of the East, with the capital of Constantinople, while he retained Illyricum, Italy, and Gaul, and fixed his court at Milan.

At this juncture, the barbarians pressed on the frontiers of the Roman empire on all sides, and were gradually pushing their inroads to the very centre. The Germans attacked Gaul and Rhætia; the Sarmatians and Quadi overran Pannonia; the Picts, Saxons, Scots, and Attacotti, invaded Britain; the Asturians, Spain; and the Moors, Africa. It required all the bravery and conduct of Valentinian, and all the skill of his generals, to make head against so many powerful nations, and repress such formidable invasions. Jovian, however, was considered as the scourge of the Germans, as Theodosius was of the Picts, and the son of the latter was equally renowned in arms. The domestic government of Valentinian was wise, equitable, and politic; and he was a favourer of the Christian religion. His stern disposition generally rendered him insensible to the dictates of humanity; and he considered clemency as a weakness, and severity as a virtue. Though often duped, yet he took the most sedulous pains to discover the truth, and with unrelenting severity punished every deviation in others from their duty. His wife Severa, having unjustly acquired an estate, he first obliged her to restore it, and then repudiated her for the fault. He exhibited many examples of torture, and even burnt alive several unfaithful officers; yet the punishments which he inflicted, seldom operated as a warning on others. Indeed, he was so much the slave of self conceit, and entertained so high an opinion of his own talents and sagacity, that it was probably considered as meritorious to deceive him. No one dared to advise him, lest they should offend him; for he was easily provoked; and his anger, when once excited, was little short of madness. However, he was not without bright parts in his character. In an age abounding with religious contention, his wise and moderate government contributed to soften the manners, and abate the prejudices of religious factions. He died at the age of fifty-five, and left his throne to his son Gratian, whom he had invested with the purple from his earliest years (A. D. 375).

In the second year of the reign of Valens, a compe-

titor for the throne arose in the person of Procopius, a kinsman of Julian, who was betrayed by his troops, and being taken prisoner, was decapitated by order of the emperor. Valens intemperately supported the Arian heresy, and inveterately persecuted the orthodox, against whom, as he thought disgrace, exclusion from offices, spoliations of property, and even exile, insufficient, he also employed tortures and death. With all the superstitious prejudices of a little mind, he directed his attention equally to divines, sorcerers, astrologers, deliverers of oracles, fortune-tellers, and the deceivers and deceived of every kind. Every book which contained circles or lines, figures of animals, or delineations of the human body, was sought for with the most vexatious industry and persevering diligence, and considered as the abominable collections of a diabolical science, and an instrument of sorcery, deserving to be committed to the flames. Unhappy were those in whose possession were found such manuscripts, which, though there only by chance, brought on the possessor the same punishment, as if they had been applied to forbidden arts. Valens, on being informed that some person had consulted an oracle to know who was to be his successor, and was told that his name began with *Theod*, ordered all the bearers of those fatal letters to be massacred. The persecution fell heaviest on the pagan philosophers, whom Julian the apostate had so much encouraged, and who constituted a kind of religious society in which polytheism was professed. This conduct alienated from him the minds of his subjects, and rendered him odious and detestable. When, therefore, he left Constantinople the last time, its inhabitants swore, that he should never re-enter that city and find them there. "May Valens be burnt alive!" became a common imprecation, and proved prophetic. During the whole reign of Valens, he had been constantly engaged in war with the Goths, who were distinguished by the appellation of the Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or Eastern and Western Goths, and who, having been expelled from their possessions along the mouths of the Borysthenes and Niester, and impelled forwards by the Huns, a barbarous nation from the north-west of Asia, presented themselves on the banks of the Danube, and earnestly entreated the Romans to receive them into the empire. Valens imprudently gave them settlements in Thrace; but soon after being irritated with

bad usage, they took up arms under their king Fritigern; and being joined by the Huns and Alans, they defeated the Romans in a pitched battle near the city of Adrianople (A. D. 378). Valens being wounded in the engagement, was removed to a neighbouring cottage, which was set on fire by the enemy, and in it was consumed the emperor of the East. The Goths, unopposed, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

By the death of Valens, Gratian, exclusively of his share of the West, found himself possessed of the whole Eastern empire; and sensible that this was a burden which he was unable to bear unassisted and alone, he prevailed on Theodosius, afterwards surnamed the Great, to become his associate in the honours and toils of empire (A. D. 379). Under these emperors, religion was cherished, and its ministers obtained a very powerful influence in the state. The early fame of Gratian was equal to that of the most celebrated princes; and, before he had finished his twentieth year, he had endeared himself by his amiable disposition, affable manners, courage, and conduct, to his soldiers, his friends, and his people. However, the succeeding years of his reign undermined, in some degree, that reputation, the basis of which had been laid with so much care. After the death or removal of the faithful counsellors of his father, he became the dupe of less able, but more pliant ministers, who flattered his errors, or even created them. Disgusted with his conduct, the soldiers almost universally deserted, and joined Maximus, who had revolted, and who put the emperor of the West to death, after a reign of eight years.

Several important considerations induced Theodosius to accept the proffered alliance of the usurper and assassin of Gratian; and he only stipulated, that Maximus should content himself with the countries beyond the Alps, and that Valentinian II., the brother of Gratian, should be secured in the sovereignty of Italy, Africa, and the Western Illyricum. Maximus seemed to acquiesce in these conditions; but, at length, in direct violation of the treaty, he caused a considerable body of troops to be marched over the Alps, and expelling Valentinian, became, for a short time, the undisputed ruler of the West. However, Maximus was defeated by Theodosius (A. D. 388), who abandoned him to the vengeance of the soldiers, and annexed

to the states of Valentinian those provinces which had been rescued from the usurper.

No sooner was Theodosius withdrawn, than the aspiring ministers of the humane but timid Valentinian began to domineer over their master, who was strangled in his apartment by Arbogastes, a Frank, whom the soldiers had raised, without the consent of the emperor, to the rank of general (A. D. 391). The artful Frank did not assume the purple himself, but invested with it Eugenius, who had made his way to honour and distinction by his reputation for eloquence. They were defeated and slain by Theodosius, whose sole authority the Roman world now acknowledged, and who, instead of persecuting his pagan subjects who had embraced the cause of the late usurper, endeavoured to open their eyes, and withdraw them from error to the truth of Christianity. This prince, who was deservedly surnamed the Great, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and, by wholesome laws, secured the prosperity of his people. He died at Milan, after a prosperous and glorious reign of sixteen years, and left to his son Arcadius the throne of Constantinople, and to Honorius the sceptre of the West, the former of whom was only eighteen, and the latter no more than eleven years of age.

(A. D. 395.) Theodosius had appointed Rufinus guardian or minister to Arcadius, and Stilicho to Honorius. Rufinus was a Gascon, and possessed diligence and capacity; but pride, malice, and covetousness, tarnished all his valuable qualities. Stilicho was of Vandalic origin, and his strength and stature admirably fitted him for the profession of arms, in which, by his prudence and valour, he had attained a high rank. Theodosius had recommended to him, with his last breath, the care of his sons, and of the republic. Though the person and court of Honorius, at Milan, readily acknowledged the ascendancy of Stilicho, yet the latter soon shewed a desire of that superiority in the government of the East also; and, for that purpose, he procured the assassination of Rufinus. But though Stilicho gratified his revenge by the murder of his rival, his ambition was disappointed; and the emperor Arcadius preferred to the stern genius of a foreign warrior the obsequious arts of the eunuch Eutropius, who was cruel, deceitful, ungrateful, and suspicious.

Honorius, who was then fourteen years of age, married

Maria, the daughter of Stilicho; but the consummation of the royal nuptials was delayed by the frigidity or impotence of the emperor: and Maria, after being ten years a wife, died a virgin. Honorius possessed neither talents nor passions, and amused himself with feeding poultry and similar avocations. However, the valour and abilities of his minister-general for a long time compensated for the incapacity and indolence of the monarch, and repelled the invasions of the barbarians, who now multiplied their attacks on all sides.

The Goths, under the conduct of the renowned Alaric, had spread their devastations to the very walls of Constantinople, and filled all Greece with the terror of their arms. Alaric concluded a treaty with the ministers of Arcadius, by which he was recognised master-general of Illyricum. After reinforcing his army with fresh hordes of barbarians, this chief penetrated into Italy, and approached the palace of Milan, before the emperor was sensible of his danger. Stilicho, however, gave him a complete defeat, in which several thousands were slain, and among the captives was the wife of Alaric, who was compelled to implore the clemency of the victor (A. D. 403).

Soon after, Arcadius, the emperor of the East, died in the thirty first year of his age, and left his throne to a son, named Theodosius, who was still an infant. Notwithstanding the services and abilities of Stilicho, and the state of the empire at that time, Honorius being persuaded that his father-in-law held intelligence with Alaric, and had called him into Italy, ordered him to be assassinated, repudiated his wife, the daughter of Stilicho, and caused his son Eucherius to be put to death (A. D. 408).

Alaric being assisted by the foreign auxiliaries, whose wives and children had been inhumanly massacred by Olympius, the successor of Stilicho, laid siege to Rome, which he reduced to the most dreadful extremity (A. D. 408). The Romans seemed disposed to negotiate, rather than fight, and received as emperor Attalus, the prefect of the city, who was obtruded on them by Alaric, but who, presuming to quarrel with his protector, was soon deposed from his power. In proportion to the concessions which were made to him Alaric rose in his demands. Honorius was dilatory in the payment of the money which he had promised, and the Gothic chieftain was active to enforce it. At length, after famine had made the most dreadful ravages in Rome, by

means of a conspiracy, the imperial city was abandoned to the licentious fury of the tribes of Germany and Scythia (A. D. 410). "All the riches of the world," said Alaric to his soldiers, on entering the gate, "are here concentrated: to you I abandon them; but I command you to spill the blood of none but the armed, and to spare such as take refuge in the churches." The pillage lasted six days; and the Goths fired the town in various places, and levelled many of the most splendid edifices with the ground. Thus fell Rome, the proud and magnificent capital of the universe, which, for eleven hundred and sixty-three years, had stretched the arms of her power over so large a portion of the habitable globe.

Alaric, who was preparing for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this era of his highest glory. Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, concluded a treaty with his successor Adolphus, gave him in marriage his sister Placidia, and, in order to secure his friendship, ceded to him a portion of Spain, of the remainder of which a great part had before been occupied by the Vandals. Soon after, he allowed to the Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul; and thus the Western empire was gradually mouldering from the dominion of its ancient masters.

Theodosius II., the emperor of the East, governed under the tuition of his sister Pulcheria, who took the reins of empire into her hands, and, though only sixteen, evinced a great capacity for ruling. She was equally mistress of the court and the state. Theodosius married Athenais, the daughter of the Athenian philosopher, Leontius.

While the empire of the East was solely directed by women, that of the West was not less so from the ascendancy which Placidia, the sister of Honorius, maintained over that emperor. Honorius died of a dropsy, after a reign of twenty-eight years, pregnant with great events, some of which reflect immortal honour on his generals, but scarcely one of them on the emperor himself (A. D. 423).

It ought to be observed, that the regular forces being gradually withdrawn from Britain, in the reign of Honorius, in order to repel the Goths and other enemies of the empire, that island became wholly independent of the Roman power (A. D. 409); and the claims of allegiance and protection were succeeded by the mutual offices of national friendship.

While the ministers of the East were deliberating, the vacant throne of the West was usurped by John, an imperial secretary, supported by Aetius, a very able general, who undertook to engage the Huns to act against Theodosius, if he should refuse to acknowledge the tool of his own ambition. However, the emperor of the East anticipating the designs of Aetius, sent his aunt Placidia into the West with her son Valentinian, whom he invested with supreme authority, at the age of six years, under the regency of his mother. To support their claims, they were accompanied by an army, commanded by Ardaburius, and his son Aspar. The fleet being dispersed by a dreadful tempest, the vessel which carried Ardaburius was wrecked on the coast; and he himself was taken and conducted to John at Ravenna, who gave him a friendly reception, and allowed him the full liberty of the town. This impolitic indulgence was rewarded by the prisoner sending intelligence to Aspar, that the soldiers of John were not well affected to their master's cause, and desiring him to hasten with his troops to Ravenna. Accordingly, Aspar marching thither immediately, found the gates open, seized upon the usurper, and sent him to Placidia, who caused his head to be cut off.

Aetius, being informed of this catastrophe, prudently determined to make his submission, and was again received into favour, and constituted commander of a great part of the troops of the empire. But not being of a disposition to be satisfied with divided power, he saw with jealousy and malignant eyes the estimation in which Boniface, an officer commendable both for his virtues and abilities, was regarded at the court of Valentinian III. Though Boniface had displayed the most consummate talents in Africa, yet the insidious Aetius insinuated to Placidia every thing unfavourable to the character and views of his rival, and had the address to procure his recall. Boniface, whom Aetius had privately informed that the empress had laid a plot for his destruction, refused to obey the imperial mandate, and was, therefore, declared an enemy to the state.

At the same time, Aetius was appointed generalissimo of all the troops of the empire, and sent against Boniface, who gave his rival a defeat, but who, distrusting his strength to cope singly with his enemies, called in the assistance of Genseric, king of the Vandals. It was agreed

that they should divide Africa between them; and Genseric, full of this agreeable prospect, quitted Spain, accompanied by his whole community of men, women, and children. However, an agreement taking place between Placidia and Boniface, the latter, at the solicitation of the former, endeavoured to free Africa from the Vandals, and offered Genseric considerable sums of money if he would retreat. But the Vandals having taken possession of the whole country, excepting only three cities, of which Carthage was one, treated the proposals with insult, cut to pieces the few remaining soldiers, and besieged Boniface in Carthage. There he maintained himself upwards of a year; but, at length, he was compelled to surrender; and he had the mortification to behold all Africa, which he had once saved, ravaged in the most cruel manner by the barbarians whom he had invited into that country.

During the whole reign of Theodosius, the Eastern empire was incessantly attacked and distressed by the different tribes of barbarians, who laboured, by reiterated efforts, to annihilate the feeble remains of Roman power. A contemporary author has thus characterized the savage hordes, who were now become too powerful to be resisted, and too numerous to be destroyed:—"The Goths are deceitful, but their morals are pure; the Alans are less chaste, but more honest; the Franks are cunning, lying, and perfidious, and regard even perjury as a venial offence; the Saxons are obdurate, but abhor intemperance or excess; the Gepidæ are cruel; the Huns artful and dissolute; and the Germans drunken." The philosopher will readily perceive, that the evil habits and vices of their ancestors adhere, in a great measure, to posterity.

The Huns extended their conquests from the borders of China to the Baltic Sea, and, under the conduct of Attila, laid waste Mœsia and Thrace; and Theodosius, after a mean attempt to murder this barbarian chief, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. In this crisis of universal decay, the Britons implored the Romans to defend them against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer, that they were unable to render them any assistance. Theodosius II. died at the age of fifty years, after having reigned forty-two. This prince seems to have possessed a good inclination; but indolence, or inaptitude for business, rendered his inherent virtues of little avail to his people.

(A. D. 450) By the death of Theodosius, Pulcheria remained sole mistress of the empire; but she married Marcian, on condition that he would never claim a royal right, and invested him with the imperial purple. He was a native of Thrace, and in his youth had been severely exercised in poverty and misfortune. By gradual steps he had risen from the ranks of the army to be tribune and senator.

Attila, who has been called "the Scourge of God," menaced the two sovereigns of the Eastern and Western empires. After having sufficiently plundered the Romans of the East, he turned his arms to the West, where the sceptre vibrated in the feeble hands of Valentinian I. who had just lost his mother Placidia, and with her no best defence. The emperor extricated himself from the present difficulty by a sum of gold, and averted from Italy this scourge, which already impended over Gaul, where Attila was defeated by Aetius, who commanded that province. By the death of Attila, the earth was delivered from a warrior, who had never suffered mankind to enjoy any repose, and who had never enjoyed any rest himself. The emperor of the West was assassinated by Petronius Maximus, whose wife he had basely violated, and who employed two barbarians to dispatch the tyrant (A. D. 455). Such was the merited end of a prince, who, during a reign of thirty years, was neither loved, respected, nor feared by his people.

Petronius Maximus, the instigator of Valentinian's murder, was saluted emperor by the senate, and forced the empress Eudoxia to his arms. However, she secretly explored the king of the Vandals to rescue her from worse than captivity; and Genseric eagerly embraced this opportunity of disguising his rapacious designs, under the specious names of justice and compassion, and, with a numerous fleet of Moors and Vandals, arrived at the mouth of the Tiber. Maximus was killed by one of his own soldiers, who thus terminated a short and feeble reign (A. D. 455). Genseric pillaged Rome, and after gently collecting whatever remained of public or private wealth, conveyed it to his vessels, and returned in triumph to Carthage.

(A. D. 456.) Avitus, who commanded in Gaul, was nominated by the representatives of that province to the sceptre of the West; but he was deposed by count Ricimer.

who was the grandson of Wallia by the mother's side, and in that of his father was descended from the nation of the Suevi. After returning from a conquest over the Vandals, Ricimer boldly proclaimed to Avitus, that his feeble reign was at an end. Avitus, without resistance, descended from his throne, and assumed the sacred character of bishop of Placentia, but was at last sacrificed to the implacable resentment of the senate.

On the abdication of Avitus, Ricimer elevated to the throne Majorian, whose virtues derived additional lustre from being contrasted with the qualities of his immediate predecessors, and who, after a reign of not quite four years and a half, was murdered on the river Iria, and with him expired the hopes of Italy and of the Roman name. All the civil regulations of Majorian tended to the relief of the oppressed, the purity of morals, and the restoration of whatever had decayed or been destroyed in the capital. His military preparations pointed principally towards the recovery of Africa; and with this view he attracted, by his liberality, many thousands of the Gepidæ, the Ostrogoths, the Suevi, the Alani, and other barbarians of the remote north, who assembled in the plains of Liguria. In the midst of a severe winter, the emperor, clad in complete armour, conducted them over the Alps, and afterwards vanquished, and admitted to an alliance Genseric, the martial king of the Goths. However, a dreadful sedition, fomented by count Ricimer, soon after obliged Majorian to resign the sceptre; and four days after his resignation, it was reported that he died of a dysentery.

Ricimer now invested with the purple Lebus Severus, an obscure person, whose life and reign, which lasted no longer than they were agreeable to his patron, were protracted to six years. During that period, Italy was afflicted by the incessant depredations of the Vandals, who spread the terror of their arms from the Pillars of Hercules to the mouth of the Nile (A. D. 462). The emperor of the East purchased, by a valuable consideration, a necessary peace; and the fury of the Vandals was confined to the territories of the West.

On the death of Marcian, Leo of Thrace, a military tribune, was raised to the throne of the Eastern empire, in consequence of the refusal of Aspar and his son Ardaburius, two powerful nobles, who, being Arians, would not venture

to assume the diadem. With the general approbation of the Romans, Leo invested Anthemius, count of the East, a patrician and pro-consul, with the purple of the West. A difference, however, took place between Anthemius and the still powerful Ricimer, who resolved to overturn his throne. Having, therefore, taken Rome by assault, Ricimer renewed the crimes of Alaric and Genseric, putting Anthemius to death, and proclaimed Olybrius in his stead (A. D. 472). The latter lived only a short time, and Ricimer himself died two months after he had seized Rome.

Leo, emperor of the East, displeased that Glycerius, the nephew of Ricimer, had caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of the West at Ravenna, raised up against him a rival called Julius Nepos, who was the nephew of Marius, and who, having deposed Glycerius, was acknowledged by the Italians and provincials of Gaul. Nepos, after an equivocal reign of five years, was deposed by the barbarian confederates, who, under the command of Orestes, advanced from Rome to Ravenna. Orestes was descended from an illustrious family in Pannonia, and, disdainful to obey the Ostrogoths, to whom his native country was now enlisted into the armies of Rome. The troops, when Orestes declined the purple, readily consented to acknowledge his son Augustulus, a child, as emperor of the West. The soldiers, however, demanding that a third part of Italy should be divided among them, Orestes refused to subscribe to the ruin of an innocent people, and was put to death by Odoacer, a bold barbarian, who headed the confederates, and who despoiled Augustulus of the imperial ornaments, and compelled him to signify his resignation to the senate. Odoacer did not assume the imperial diadem, but caused himself to be proclaimed king of Italy.

(A. D. 476) Thus ended the empire of the West, two hundred and twenty-nine years from the building of Rome, and five hundred and seven after the foundation of the Roman monarchy by the battle of Actium. Writers have not failed to remark, that the empire began in Augustus and ended in a prince called by a diminutive of the usual name.

Britain had been long abandoned by the Romans, and was now possessed by the Saxons; Spain was in the possession of the Goths and the Suevi; and Africa in that of the Vandals. Gaul was divided among the Burgundians

the Goths, the Franks, and the Alemanni. At length Italy herself, and Rome the magnificent, which had for so many ages imposed laws on the rest of the world, submitted to a barbarian, whose family and country were unknown. The ultimate cause which produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric, was its greatness. The extension of its dominion weakened the vigour of its frame; the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions; selfish interest supplanted the patriotic affection; the martial spirit was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass being thus corrupted and enervated, was easily overthrown and destroyed by the torrent of barbarians.

Leo still governed the East, and was more fortunate than Anthemius, who fell a victim to the jealousy of Ricimer, to whom he owed his crown. Leo, raised to the throne by Aspar and Ardaburius, maintained himself in opposition to these two men, and even got rid of these troublesome protectors, who soon wished to displace him. He united his younger daughter, named Ariadne, to Zeno, who was of an illustrious Isaurian family, and whom he made a patrician, captain of his guards, and commander of all the troops of the East, with the expectation of the empire. But as his son-in-law was agreeable neither to the people nor the senate of Constantinople, in order that the imperial sceptre might not pass from the hands of his family, Leo, now old and infirm, created his grandson Leo, the offspring of Zeno, Cæsar.

Leo died of a flux at an advanced age, after a reign of seventeen years, and the empire of the East devolved on his grandson Leo, whose death happening soon after, the father of the child, who had changed his barbarous appellation of Trascalisseus for the Greek of Zeno, was left sole emperor (A. D. 474). Zeno was deformed, and after being raised to the throne, evinced those vices to which he had before been addicted. Being subject to an epilepsy, his empress Ariadne, who loved him not, is said to have caused him to be precipitately interred in one of his fits, though he was not really dead (A. D. 491). A noise was heard in the coffin, which she would not suffer to be opened; and it was discovered some days after, that Zeno had devoured the flesh off his own arms. He died at the age of sixty-five, after a reign of seventeen years.

On the death of her husband, Ariadne bestowed her hand and the imperial title on Anastasius, who had grown old in the offices of the palace, and whose virtues had been such, that, when he was proclaimed emperor in the circus, the universal acclamation was, "Reign, Anastasius, as thou hast lived!" This prince patronised the Eutychians, and persecuted the orthodox. In his reign Constantinople was besieged by a fleet of ships, which were set on fire by burning-glasses, invented by Proclus the mathematician. At first, Anastasius shewed great generosity, gentleness of disposition, and a desire to promote the happiness of his subjects; but he afterwards degenerated so far as to sell offices, and divide the spoils of the people with the governors of provinces. He was found dead in his chamber in the eightieth year of his age, after a reign of twenty-seven years.

(A. D. 518.) Justin, a native of Dacia, to whom a liberal donative had been intrusted by the eunuch Anastasius for conciliating the guards, employed the money to his own favour, and was invested with the purple at the age of sixty-eight. This prince, like his contemporary Theodoric king of the Goths, was destitute even of the knowledge of the alphabet; but he was preserved from exposing his incapacity, by his good sense in following the direction of abler statesmen, whom he had the wisdom to select. He relied on the diligence of his quæstor Proclus, and the talents of his nephew Justinian, whom he had drawn from the solitudes of Dacia, and educated as his future heir.

(A. D. 527.) On the death of his uncle Justin, Justinian, who afterwards obtained the surname of Great, ascended the throne, and governed the Roman empire upwards of thirty-eight years. Though he was vain, capricious, tyrannical, and of mean ability, yet the Roman name rose for some time from its abasement, by the merit of his generals. With a numerous army and a powerful fleet, Belisarius, the Roman general, set out for the conquest of Africa, and having effected a landing on that coast, an engagement followed, in which Gelimer, the king of the Vandals, was defeated (A. D. 535). Another battle succeeded, in which only fifty Romans and eight hundred Vandals were killed, and which decided the fate of Africa. The unfortunate Gelimer was led in triumph; but the emperor bestowed on him an ample estate in the province of Galatia, where he

retired with his family and friends to a life of peace, of affluence, and probably of content.

(A. D. 537.) A body of forces under the conduct of Belisarius attacked and carried Palermo and Syracuse in Sicily. The Roman general embarked his troops at Messina, and, landing at Rhegium, advanced to Naples, which became the prey of the Romans. Belisarius then marched to Rome, which opened its gates to the lieutenant of Justinian, and which was besieged for a year by the Goths, who were repelled by Belisarius, and obliged to take shelter within the walls of Ravenna (A. D. 539). The submission of the towns and villages followed that of the capital; and Italy was wrested from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored for a short time to the dominion of its ancient masters. From the Persians, who were at this period most formidable enemies of the empire, Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession of territory and an enormous tribute of gold.

Belisarius, whom the jealousy of the emperor had recalled from Italy, on being re-appointed to the command of that country, found the Gothic monarchy, which he had overturned, in some measure restored by the valiant and virtuous Totila. Belisarius was obliged to leave Rome to the mercy of the Gothic general, who, after reserving the most precious spoils for his treasury, abandoned the city to the free pillage of the soldiers (A. D. 546). Belisarius, however, found means to repossess himself of Rome; and Totila being repulsed in three general assaults, the fame of the barbarian sank, as it had risen, with the fortune of his arms.

Belisarius was again recalled; and the credit of completing the conquest of Italy, by the defeat and death of Totila, was reserved for Narses the eunuch, who had long been the minister of the palace, and in whose procession, Rome for the last time saw the semblance of a triumph. The capital of Italy was soon after degraded to the second rank; and the exarchs of Ravenna filled the throne of the Gothic kings. The declining years of Belisarius were crowned with a last victory, in which he saved the emperor and the capital from the Bulgarians, who, having passed the frozen Danube, spread terror and consternation to the very recesses of the palace. However, the hero was accused of being implicated in a dark conspiracy against the life of his master, and after appearing before the council, his sex-

twice was requested, and for several months he was guarded as a prisoner in his own palace. At length, his innocence became conspicuous, and was acknowledged; and his death, which happened about eight months after, and was probably hastened by chagrin, delivered him from the jealousy and ingratitude of the emperor*. Justinian also died soon after, in the eighty-third year of his age; and though his fame is eclipsed by the superior lustre of his general, the review of the Roman jurisprudence in the *code*, the *pandects*, and the *institutes*, affords a noble monument of his spirit and industry.

(A. D. 565.) He was succeeded by his nephew Justin II. upon whose head the patriarch of Constantinople for the first time placed the diadem, and the annals of whose reign are marked by disgrace abroad, and misery at home. The Lombards, under the gallant Alboin, established themselves in Italy, and gave a permanent name to a portion of that country (A. D. 568). The empire was afflicted by the loss of Italy, the desolation of Africa, and the requests of the Persians. The venality of the magistrates and the injustice of the governors, exhausted the capital and the provinces. Justin determined to seek an immediate successor, and made choice of Tiberius, the captain of the guard, who was elevated to the imperial dignity, in the presence of the patriarch and the senate (A. D. 574). Having thus abdicated the throne, Justin spent the last four years of his life in tranquillity and retirement.

Tiberius was humane, just, temperate, and brave; and his subjects contemplated with pleasure the virtues which he possessed. But, unhappily for mankind, in less than four years after the death of Justin, he fell into a mortal disease, which left him only sufficient time to bestow the diadem on his son-in-law Maurice.

(A. D. 582.) At the age of forty-three, Maurice ascended the throne, and reigned twenty years over the East, amidst almost continual turbulence. Yet, he was endued with sense and courage to promote the happiness of his people, and in his government followed the model of Tiberius. The army beyond the Danube revolted, and under the command of a centurion named Phocas, return-

* Such was the fate of Belisarius. That he was deprived of his eyes, and obliged to beg his bread, is a fiction derived from a monk of the twelfth century.

ed by rapid marches to the vicinity of Constantinople. The unfortunate Maurice, with his wife and nine children, escaped in a boat to St. Autonomus, near Chalcedon, whither they were pursued by the ministers of Phocas, who had entered Constantinople amidst the usual acclamations of fortunate power. The ministers dragged the emperor from his sanctuary, and murdered his five sons, one after another, before his eyes. Maurice only repented, at every wound, the words of the prophet David, "Thou art just, O Lord! in all thy judgments." He was then killed in his turn, on the dead bodies of his children, at the age of sixty-three.

(A. D. 603.) Sanguinary and inexorable, Phocas was addicted both to women and wine; and his wife's character was little better than his own. He considered services as crimes, and relationship as a misfortune. At length, his capricious cruelty knew no bounds; and the standard of rebellion was ready to be erected in every province, when Heraclius, the son of a governor of Africa of the same name, was prevailed on to deliver the earth from such a monster.

(A. D. 610.) Heraclius, who was acknowledged emperor by the clergy, the senate, and the people, was of a noble family, and well versed in war, a science extremely necessary, at a time when the empire was assailed on all sides. Heraclius recovered several provinces, which the Persians had dismembered from the Roman empire, and defeated Chosroes, the Persian monarch, in many engagements. At this time, Mahomet, whose apostles were his numerous armies, took Medina and Mecca, and began to spread his religion in Asia, where Christianity then prevailed. Though Heraclius was deficient neither in courage nor ability, yet he spent so much time in religious disputes and public festivals, that he had not leisure to reflect on the dangers which threatened the empire.

(A. D. 641.) Heraclius was succeeded by his son Constantine, who, after a reign of seven months, is believed to have been poisoned by his mother-in-law Martina, that her son Heracleonas might obtain the throne. The senate, however, punished her and her son, and invested with the purple Constans, the son of Constantine, and grandson of Heraclius. This prince beheld with jealous and malignant eyes his brother Theodosius, whose virtues endeared

him to the people, and whom he caused to be put to death. Remorse for this crime pursued the royal assassin, and induced him to fix his residence at Syracuse, where he governed in so tyrannical a manner, that he perished by domestic treason, in the twenty-seventh year of his reign.

(A. D. 668.) Constans was succeeded by his son Constantine, surnamed Pogonatus, or the Bearded. In his reign, the Saracens, or disciples of Mahomet, penetrated even to the walls of Constantinople; but they were repulsed by Constantine, who was a pious and just prince, and who died after a reign of seventeen years.

(A. D. 685.) His son, Justinian II., ascended the throne in the seventeenth year of his age, and governed with such haughtiness and cruelty, that he was expelled, and Leontius, who had formerly commanded the troops of the East, was proclaimed emperor in his room. Leontius, however, was deposed by Apsimar, one of his generals, who assumed the name of Tiberius, and who gained some important advantages over the Saracens. Justinian having obtained the assistance of Terbelis, king of Bulgaria, a pagan prince besieged and took Constantinople, and put Leontius and Apsimar to death; and during the six years of his new reign, the rack, the axe, and the cord, were incessantly employed by this monster, who seems to have possessed a species of ferocious insanity.

It is said that in his flight to Terbelis, the vessel in which he sailed being in extreme danger, one of his attendants entreated him that, if ever he recovered the empire, he would forgive his enemies: but he answered sternly, "May I be drowned this instant, if I forgive one of them!" He was so vindictive, that he caused the inhabitants of the Chersonesus to be massacred for not having paid him the respect due to him when exiled among them, as well as from a suspicion, which he entertained, of their having had an intention of giving him up to Tiberius. The executioners of this order having spared the women and children, the emperor sent them back, and expressly forbade them to leave one child alive. The difficulty of fulfilling this inhuman command, and the fear of being punished by the emperor for not having obeyed his order, induced them to proclaim their general Philippicus, who found means to procure the death of Justinian, after a turbulent reign of twenty-one years. The

prince, on very slight grounds, declared war against Terbelis, who had restored him to the throne.

(A. D. 706.) Philippicus, whom the soldiers had proclaimed emperor, and who abused the authority which he had acquired by the death of the tyrant, was deposed; and the people invested with the purple Anastasius, his first secretary (A. D. 713), who appointed Leo, a native of Isauria, and an able general, to the command of his troops. This general negotiated with Anastasius to resign the crown as a burthen too heavy for him, and to retire to the enjoyment of a private life.

(A. D. 718.) In the reign of Leo, the empire of the East lost even its shadow of authority in Italy, which passed under the power of the Lombards; while Rome submitted to the temporal, as well as to the spiritual domination of the pope.* These revolutions were chiefly produced, and ultimately confirmed, by the dispute concerning image worship, which so fiercely agitated the Christian world during the eight and ninth centuries. Leo and his successors endeavoured to abolish the worship of images, and persecuted all who paid them religious rites.

The primitive Christians were possessed with an unconquerable repugnance to the use and abuse of images; but under the successors of Constantine, the bishops indulged the ignorant multitude with a visible superstition. The first introduction of symbolic worship consisted in the veneration of the cross and of relics. The Son of God was next represented under the form which it was supposed he had assumed while on earth; and the Virgin Mary soon claimed and obtained a similar distinction.

It is, however, to be observed, that the worship of images stole into the church by insensible degrees, and was little noticed for a great length of time; but in the beginning of the eighth century, when it had reached the full magnitude of abuse, the Greeks were awakened by the apprehension, that, under the mask of Christianity, they had restored the polytheism of their fathers. Many sensible Christians began to express their disapprobation

* Pope, which from a Greek word signifies father, is an appellation given in the East to all Christian priests, and in the West, bishops were so called in ancient times, though it gradually began to be restrained to the bishop of Rome, to whom it has now been exclusively appropriated for many centuries.

of these symbols, which exposed them to obloquy, and which could not be reconciled to the genuine unperverted tenets of their holy religion; and when Leo, from the mountains of Isauria, had ascended the throne of the East he was early inspired with a hatred to images, though for some time he bowed before them out of policy, and satisfied the Roman pontiffs of his orthodoxy and zeal by annual processions, and other mummeries which the successors of St. Peter had sanctioned. In the reformation of religion, Leo, being provoked by resistance and invective, proscribed the existence as well as the use of religious pictures; demolished the images of Christ, the Virgin, and the Saints; and caused a smooth surface of plaster to be spread over the churches of Constantinople and the provinces. However, the people and clergy were divided with respect to this question; and the cities of the East could not be brought wholly to renounce the worship of images, so long as the West remained unanimously attached to it.

Whilst the emperor was almost wholly occupied with these disputes, the Saracens ravaged the eastern parts of the empire, though not with impunity. Leo, after a reign of twenty five years, and after taking proper steps to secure the diadem to his son Constantine, died in his palace at Constantinople.

(A. D. 751.) Constantine, who was usually known by the appellation of Constantine Copronymus, from the pollution of his baptismal font, was more successful than his father against the Saracens and Bulgarians. He, also, persecuted those who worshipped images, and was succeeded by his son, Leo IV. (A. D. 775), who imitated his violence against images, but was opposed by persons in his own palace, and even by the empress Irene his wife. He reigned only five years.

(A. D. 780.) Leo declared Irene the guardian of the Roman world, and of his son Constantine VI., who was only ten years of age. Those who envied her power, engaged the young prince to remove his mother to a distance; but Irene, being informed of the design, caused the conspirators to be publicly flogged, and took on herself the charge of punishing her son, whom she treated in a similar manner, in the interior of the palace. Constantine being thus compelled to submit to his mother, took an oath of fidelity to her; and she was afterwards proclaimed sovereign by the

armies. Constantine rose in his turn; for the people, offended with the tyrannical treatment which she exercised towards her son, obliged her to restore him to his liberty. The son conducted his mother, with the utmost respect, to a house of her own building, where she and all her treasure were confined; but Constantine still continuing to see her, she soon regained her ascendancy over him.

There is no doubt but that, to obtain this ascendancy, she encouraged his vices, or, at least, did not oppose them; a fault which became a crime, when its object was to render her son odious and detestable. By her advice, he unjustly divorced his wife the empress Maria, and put out the eyes of three of his uncles, whom he suspected. He had left Irene with the army at Prusa in Bithynia; and from this army she sent several officers whom she had engaged to depose her son. Arriving at Constantinople, without his having the least suspicion of their design, they caused the eyes of the emperor to be put out in so barbarous a manner, that he died three days after in the most excruciating pain, having reigned alone, and in conjunction with his mother, sixteen years.

Irene now eagerly embraced a proposal of espousing Charlemagne, in order to unite the two empires; but the matrimonial negotiation being divulged to the inhabitants of Constantinople, they, fearing that such a marriage would occasion a removal of the seat of empire, invested with the purple the great treasurer Nicephorus, who banished Irene to the isle of Lesbos, where she died. Irene afforded protection to images, but was an ambitious and intriguing woman, equally devoid of feeling and of principle.

(A. D. 805.) Nicephorus united in his character the odious vices of hypocrisy, ingratitude, and avarice. He concluded a treaty with Charlemagne, who was then in the zenith of his power; but he was both unskilful and unfortunate in war. He was slain by the Bulgarians; and his son Stauracius, who survived him only six months, proved that, with the kingdom, he inherited the vices of his father. Michael, who had married his sister Procopia, possessed the esteem and affection of the court and the city, and was invested with the purple (A. D. 811). His mild virtues, however, were more adapted to the shade of private life, and, after reigning some time, he abdicated the throne, and withdrew to a monastery.

(A. D. 813.) He was succeeded by Leo V., who had been

early educated in a camp, and was fond of military parade, and who declared violently against the worship of images (A. D. 820.) He was deposed by Michael, surnamed the Stammerer, who seemed to have been delivered from a dungeon and impending death, only to display upon a throne his depraved and ignoble manners. (A. D. 829.) Michael was succeeded by his son Theophilus, who was an observer of justice, a friend to his people, and perfectly disinterested, and who, being chaste and temperate in himself, was an enemy to excess and uncleanness in others.

It is related of him, that observing, in the port of Constantinople, a vessel which appeared richly laden, he asked to whom it belonged; and being answered to his wife, the empress Theodosia, he was extremely offended, and said, "Shall I suffer the wife of an emperor to be a trader? When princes apply to commerce, the subjects will soon perish with hunger." He then caused the vessel to be burnt; but if he had distributed the riches which it contained, it might have been more useful. He revived some excellent laws, and died after an active reign of twelve years.

(A. D. 841.) Theodora, the widow of Theophilus, was entrusted with the guardianship of the empire, and of her son Michael III., who was then only in the fifth year of his age. Michael, after he arrived at manhood, and was emancipated from all control, gave himself up to unbounded licentiousness, and studiously imitated the ignoble pursuits of Nero, and the scandalous excesses of Helogabarus. Basil, whom Michael had raised from the lowest station to the dignity of Cæsar, and appointed his colleague, entered the royal chamber in the hours of sleep and intoxication, and slew the son of Theophilus in the thirtieth year of his age.

(A. D. 867.) Basil governed with great justice and moderation, and rewarded men of merit; and he was so much beloved by his people, that they considered him rather as their father than their sovereign. He raised men of merit only, and allowed all his subjects to address him with freedom. This good prince had nearly deprived of sight his son Leo, who was falsely accused of an intention to assassinate him. Every one was convinced of the innocence of Leo, whom the emperor was continually importuned to restore to liberty. Tired with their solicitations, the emperor forbade his son to be named before him. It happened

one day, that, whilst he was conversing with one of the chief officers of the empire, a parrot, which was hanging in the saloon where the emperor was, and which had often heard a regret expressed for the fate of the unfortunate prince, on a sudden mattered, "Alas, poor Leo!" His friends profited by the occasion, and renewed their entreaties to the emperor, who yielded to them. He wrote some excellent rules of government, comprised in sixty-six chapters, the initial letters of which form the following sentence: "Basil, emperor of the Romans in Christ, to his dear son and colleague Leo." He expired amidst the tears of his family and people, in the nineteenth year of his reign.

(A. D. 886.) He was succeeded by his son Leo VI., surnamed the Philosopher, who composed several books of profane and ecclesiastical science. His taking a fourth wife caused such a schism in the Greek church, in which marriages were forbidden. The patriarch Mysticus disapproved of this; and Leo, to obtain absolution, sent Euthymius in his place. The clergy, and even the people, took part in the dispute; but, at length, matters were accommodated; and Leo retained his fourth wife, Zoe, by whom he had a son named Constantine. During the greater part of his reign, he carried on war with the Saracens, by his generals, who were sometimes victorious, and sometimes defeated. His own attention was particularly directed to the government of the interior. With his own hand, he revised the laws of Justinian. He bequeathed the crown to his brother Alexander, in charge for his nephew Constantine.

(A. D. 911.) On the death of Alexander, Constantine VII., surnamed Porphyrogenitus, from the apartment in which he was born being lined with porphyry, or purple, was placed under the guardianship of his mother Zoe. The Bulgarians, who were perpetual enemies of the Greeks, made irruptions, which obliged Zoe to raise troops against them, the command of which she gave to two generals, Romanus and Leo. As soon as these men were at the head of the army, they formed the design, of which the execution appeared easy against such a child, either of seizing on the empire for themselves, or dividing it with Constantine. But these ambitious pretenders disagreeing between themselves, the faction of Romanus gained the ascendancy. He deprived his rival of sight, and, marrying his daughter to Constantine, induced him to name his

son Christopher head of the allies, who were at that time the great support of the empire. He himself assumed the title of Cæsar, and afterwards that of emperor; and banishing the empress Zoe, he took the whole authority into his hands, and made peace with the Bulgarians. The young emperor seemed to take no part in these events, but formed his own designs, which were to suffer his enemies to ruin each other. At length, however, Romanus having associated another Constantine with him in the empire, the legitimate emperor Constantine engaged his third son, named Stephen, to raise himself in opposition to his father, and, surprising them both, caused them to be ordained priests, that they might no more aspire to the throne. The crime which Constantine had incited Stephen to commit against his father, was attempted, and almost consummated, against himself by his son Romanus, who endeavoured to poison him; but the emperor, at the moment of raising the cup to his lips, by a slip of his foot, spilt a part of the draught, yet still drank sufficient to make him very ill.

(A. D. 959.) After a reign of forty-eight years, he was succeeded by Romanus, the Poisoner, who was one of the most debauched sovereigns mentioned in history, and who was poisoned by his wife Theophano.

(A. D. 963.) Romanus left two sons, Basil and Constantine. Theophano, conscious of the necessity of a protector, threw herself into the arms of Nicephorus Phocas, who united, in the popular opinion, the double merit of a hero and a saint, and who assumed the title of Augustus with the pre-eminence of power. Nicephorus, however, was put to death with the consent of Theophano, who opened his chamber-door to John Zimisces and the other conspirators, who massacred the emperor without opposition.

(A. D. 969.) Zimisces admitted Basil and Constantine, the two sons of Romanus, as his partners in the empire. He signalized himself on the Danube and the Tigris, and, by his double triumph over the Russians and the Saracens, deserved the title of conqueror of the East and saviour of the empire. He was poisoned by his chamberlain, and, after nominating Basil and Constantine for his successors, died universally lamented.

(A. D. 976.) It is unknown whether the assassin and poisoner Theophano had any share in his death; but it is

certain that she partook in the benefits arising from it. The eunuch Basil recalled her, in hopes of reigning with her in the names of the two princes, the eldest of whom was nineteen, and the youngest seventeen years of age. Bardas Selerus, an able general, who had been employed by Zimisces, usurped the sovereign authority, twice defeated the imperial army, took Nice, and beat Bardas Phocas, the nephew of Nicephorus. Phocas, however, obliged Selerus to flee to Babylon, where he was imprisoned by the sultan. The former being freed from Selerus, he assumed the purple; and the latter having obtained his liberty, entered into an agreement with Phocas. They divided the empire between them, that they might more effectually defend it against Basil and Constantine, who, notwithstanding their youth, had taken arms, and pursued the usurpers. The two Bardases soon disagreed; and Phocas, after imprisoning Selerus, himself fell in battle against the two emperors. In consequence of the defeat of his colleague, Selerus shook off his fetters, and remained some time in rebellion, till at length he submitted, and was favourably treated.

Constantine indulged in the pleasures of youth, and rejected the cares of government; but Basil, the elder brother, soon felt the impulse of genius, and displayed his valour in frequent expeditions against the Saracens, and by the final destruction of the kingdom of Bulgaria (A. D. 1025). On the death of Basil, Constantine employed his power and time in overthrowing the plans of his brother, whose ministers he displaced, and substituted in their room the companions of his own excesses. In the tenth century, which had now elapsed, the relics of Italy were swept away by the Normans, and almost all the Asiatic branches were dis severed from the Roman trunk by the Turks. Still, however, the Eastern empire, with all its defalcations, equalled the largest of the modern European kingdoms.

(A. D. 1028.) On the death of Constantine IX., the sceptre of the East devolved on Romanus Argyrus, who had married Zoe, the late emperor's daughter. His whole conduct proved him to be a prince of piety and moral goodness; but the abandoned Zoe, having preferred to the pleasures of her bed Michael, a handsome Paphlagonian, caused Romanus to be put to death, and married her paramour. John the eunuch, and brother of Michael, seized on the entire authority, and, upon the death of the latter,

elevated to the throne his nephew Michael Calaphates, who was so named from his father's occupation in careening vessels, and who banished both Zoe and his uncle (A. D. 1041). Zoe, however, was restored to the throne by the people, and associated with her in the empire her sister Theodora, who had led a religious life. Her subjects also required her to give them an emperor, Zoe, among the many pretenders who arose, preferred Constantine, surnamed Monomachus, a man of an illustrious birth and agreeable person, a qualification by no means indifferent in the eyes of the empress, who espoused him. Monomachus governed with wisdom and prudence, and as fortunately as the incursions of the barbarians, who continually harassed the empire, would allow him. We are ignorant what share he gave Theodora in the government, and all that is known is, that he always treated her with attention and respect. But Zoe, his wife, being dead, and finding his health decline, he did not make choice of his sister-in-law Theodora for his successor. As soon as she was informed of this, she quitted her convent, and caused herself to be declared empress. This bold action so much terrified Monomachus, that he fainted on hearing it, and died in the thirteenth year of his reign.

(A. D. 1055.) Theodora reigned with honour and dignity, and, by the advice of her counsellors, left the sceptre to Michael Stratioticus, a decrepid veteran, whose feeble government and imprudent conduct so disgusted the army that they elevated to the throne Isaac Comnenus, and his power was afterwards confirmed by the sanction of the senate.

(A. D. 1057.) In order to replenish the exhausted coffers of the state, Isaac fleeced the clergy, and loaded the people with heavy taxes, which excited loud murmurs. He nominated as his successor Constantine Ducas, a friend of the Comnenian house, and retired to a monastery, where he spent the short remainder of his days. (A. D. 1059.) Constantine XI., surnamed Ducas, suffered the taxes to remain a cause of discontent and complaint, and by donations endeavoured to buy off the hostility of the Turks, who had now become truly formidable. He left the empire to his three sons, Michael, Andronicus, and Constantine, and appointed their mother, the empress Eudocia, regent during their minority, after having obliged her to swear she would never marry again.

(A. D. 1067.) On some disasters being experienced from the Turks, the discontented and the ambitious publicly declared, that the present state of the empire required at its head a courageous man, and not a weak and timid woman. Among these declaimers against government was Romanus Diogenes, a man of a good person and an illustrious birth, who accompanied his words by actions, which caused him to be accused of aspiring to the throne. Being brought before Eudocia to receive sentence of death, the princess was moved with compassion at the sight of a man who appeared in her eyes too amiable to be criminal; and after granting him his pardon, she placed him at the head of her army, and formed the design of marrying him. In her heart, she had already dispensed with her oath; and, in order to prevent the people from opposing her inclinations, she resolved to procure the same indulgence from the patriarch John Xiphilin.

For this purpose, she pretended to be enamoured of Bardas, the nephew of the patriarch, and offered to marry him, and divide the empire with him, if the pontiff would annul the oath which she had taken, and persuade the senate that she might marry. The patriarch, who was dazzled with the expectation of seeing his nephew in so exalted a situation, by his representations of the mournful state of the empire, and by declaiming against the rash oath extorted by the jealousy of the deceased emperor, obtained the consent of the senate. He then publicly restored to Eudocia the written oath of which he had been the depositary, and exhorted her to espouse some man who might be capable of protecting her and her children. Eudocia, however, contrary to the expectation of the patriarch, married Romanus Diogenes, who was poisoned in the fourth year of his reign.

(A. D. 1071.) Under the triple government of the house of Ducas, Michael, the eldest, surnamed Parapinaces, was so indolent, that the whole power was vested in the hands of his uncle John. Two generals denominated Nicephorus, but distinguished by the surnames of Bryennius and Botaniates, erected the standard of rebellion, and assumed the purple, the one at Adrianople, the other at Nice. The feeble emperor, preferring the resignation of the crown to the fatigues of defending it, was rewarded with a monastic habit, and the title of archbishop of Ephesus.

(A. D. 1077.) Botaniates was the successful competitor, but, after a reign of a few years, was obliged to resign the empire in favour of Alexius, nephew of the emperor Isaac Comnenus. Alexius, at the head of an army, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor. However Botaniates was not without resources; but he preferred submitting to the advice of the patriarch Cosmas, who was revered for his piety, and who exhorted him to give way to the decrees of Providence, and rather yield up the empire, than suffer the capital to be stained with Christian blood. He was not long sollicitated before he went to the principal church, where he deposited his imperial vestments; and retiring thence to a cloister, he assumed those of a monk, after a reign of two years and ten months.

Alexius Comnenus retarded, as much as possible, the dismemberment of the empire. His actions evinced, that he was equally prudent as a governor, profound as a politician, and great as a warrior. Notwithstanding the readiness of Botaniates to resign the crown, the troops of Alexius had committed disorders in Constantinople, which had highly offended both the clergy and the people. Touched with remorse, Alexius appeared before the patriarch in a penitentiary habit; and having acknowledged himself guilty, he demanded, that a penance, proportionable to the enormity of the crime, should be inflicted on him. The patriarch enjoined him, and the companions of his irregularities, to fast, lie on the ground, and practice many other austerities, during forty days. The penance was exactly fulfilled, particularly by the emperor. But, after having shewn this respect to religion, he thought it no crime to appropriate the property of the church when he wanted it; a liberty which was not suffered without resistance, and which ended in exciting commotion.

(A. D. 1081.) This prince was under the necessity of waging war, not only with the Turks, Saracens, and other natural enemies of the state, but also against the West, which attacked the East with all its force, by means of the crusades, the first irruption of which Alexius had to sustain. He has been accused of duplicity with respect to the crusaders. It ought, however, to be remembered, that they did not come to his assistance, but were impelled by a degree of religious insanity, which a prudent prince could not approve. Besides, it is well known, that the

greatest part of them quitted their native homes less from a zeal for religion than from a desire for conquest, and that they were extremely disposed to invade any country near which they came. This prince was grateful, generous, and liberal; and he never punished, beyond exile and confiscation of property, the excitors of any conspiracy against him.

(A. D. 1118.) On the death of Alexius, John Comnenus, his elder son, succeeded to the throne, and happily united the claims of primogeniture and of merit. Feared by the nobles, and beloved by the people, this prince abolished the punishment of death in all judicial proceedings; and, by his virtues, seemed to revive the character of Marcus Antoninus. He repelled the invasions of the Turks, Scythians, Servians, and Huns, and made himself master of Armenia. As he was hunting the wild boar, a poisoned arrow from his quiver wounded his hand, and proved fatal to the best and greatest of the Comnenian princes.

(A. D. 1143.) John preferred his youngest son Manuel Comnenus for his successor, against whom the crusaders urged the same complaint as against his grandfather Alexius. As the genius of Manuel was remarkably active, when he was not engaged in war he entered into religious disputes, and was the inventor of some heresies. Before his death, he assumed the monastic habit, which he considered as expiatory of the profligacy in which he had lived. (A. D. 1180.) He left the crown to his son Alexius Comnenus, who was only twelve years of age, and consequently possessed neither vigour nor wisdom. This unfortunate youth was strangled by order of Andronicus, who was first cousin to the late emperor, and who destroyed, without distinction, all whom he believed attached to the family of Alexius, or capable of avenging his murder.

Scarcely a day passed which was not sullied by some cruel execution; and, in a short time, the flower of the nobility were exterminated. The tyrant was a hypocrite deliberately cruel, who, after assisting and participating with apparent devotion in the mysteries of religion, gave orders for torture and assassination the moment he turned from the altar; and yet the inhuman monster complained of the necessity which prevented him from pardoning all men of merit. The people grew tired of the bloody spec-

tyranny; and the danger of Isaac Angelus, a person of high distinction, whom Andronicus intended to assassinate, excited the compassion of the multitude, who gathered together in a church where he had taken refuge, and proclaimed him emperor. The tyrant endeavoured to save himself by sea; but the winds driving him back, he was taken and led to Isaac, who abandoned him to the populace, from whom he endured the greatest cruelty and torments for three days. If, notwithstanding all his opprobrium, he still preserved some sentiments of religion, they might be of use to him on this trying occasion. He bore their tortures with admirable courage, and frequently repeated—"Lord have mercy on me!" He shewed no impatience, and used no reproaches, but uttered, without bitterness, these words: "Why do you bruise a broken reed?" Andronicus being seventy-three years old when he seized the throne, from which he was two years afterwards precipitated by this cruel death, it may be said that ambition is of every age.

(A. D. 1184.) Isaac Angelus, a descendant in the female line from the great Alexius, being raised to the throne, gained the affections of the people by his gentleness and moderation. Five years after his accession, the third crusade was undertaken. The indolence of Isaac became almost as intolerable to his subjects as the active vices of his predecessors. His disastrous and unpopular reign furnished a pretext to his ungrateful brother Alexius to subvert his throne. Isaac was deprived of sight, and shut up in a lonesome tower; whilst his son Alexius, having made his escape, requested and obtained the assistance of the crusaders, who re-established Isaac, in conjunction with Alexius, on the throne (A. D. 1203). However, they were deposed and put to death by John Ducas, who was surnamed Murtzuphlus, from the thickness of his eyebrows, and who was immediately proclaimed emperor.

This shocking scene highly enraged the French, Venetians, and other crusaders, who made a general assault upon the city, and whose valour surmounting every obstacle of nature and art, the banners of the Latins after a long and bloody contest, were seen floating upon the walls of Constantinople, and the Greeks threw down their arms and surrendered (A. D. 1204). The conquerors spared their lives. They allowed one day for pillage, without bloodshed or violence; on condition that the whole booty

should be brought to a common stock, to be afterwards divided according to rank and merit. However, the shares proved inconsiderable, as the night had afforded time for the removal or concealment of many things; and the soldiers, notwithstanding the orders which they had received to the contrary, had secured individually many valuable effects. Without reckoning the pictures and statues, the general booty amounted to an incredible sum. Murtzuphlus escaped by favour of a small vessel, with Euphrosyne, widow of the usurper Alexius Angelus, and her daughter Eudoxia, for whom he had abandoned his lawful wife; an alliance, by which he no doubt reckoned on securing a right to the empire, from the pretensions of his father-in-law, who had taken refuge at the foot of mount Hæmus. This great revolution took place eight hundred and seventy-four years after the seat of empire had been transferred from Rome to Constantinople.

The Latin empire of Constantinople, which lasted about sixty years, is to be considered as fixed to that city, and circumscribed within a greater or less extent, according to the successes of the Greeks, Turks, and Bulgarians, and even the Latins, who attacked it on all sides. Baldwin, count of Flanders and Hainault, was solemnly proclaimed emperor. Thessaly was erected into a kingdom, under the marquis of Montserrat. The Venetians extended their settlements along the coast from Ragusa to the Hellespont, and obtained the islands of the Archipelago. Theodorus Lascaris, the son-in-law of Alexius, having taken possession of the whole country from the Meander to the Euxine, assumed the title of emperor, and fixed his residence at Nice. Alexius, the lineal heir of the Comneni, had been appointed duke of Trapezond, and extended his dominions from Sinope to the Phasis. These arrangements subverted entirely the ancient fabric of the constitution. Baldwin was taken prisoner by the king of Bulgaria, who put him to a most cruel death.

(A. D. 1206.) He was succeeded by his brother Henry, who compelled Theodorus Lascaris to acknowledge him as emperor, and who, after repeated victories, concluded an honourable peace with the king of Bulgaria, and with the Greek princes of Nice and Epirus. He died after a reign of eleven years, not without the suspicion of being poisoned.

(A. D. 1217.) The barons of France now raised to the

throne Peter of Courtenay, cousin to the French king, and brother-in-law of the late emperor, who was assassinated by order of Theodorus, prince of Epirus. He was succeeded by his younger son, Robert, in whose reign the French were pressed on all sides by the Greeks of Nice and Epirus (A. D. 1221). His successor, Baldwin of Courtenay, who was his brother, gradually lost his empire, and at length, Michael Palæologus, who had been raised to the crown of Nice from being leader of the troops, took the capital by surprise, and the Greeks again became masters of Constantinople, after it had been in the possession of the Latins sixty years (A. D. 1261).

Michael turned his attention principally to commerce, which he wished to see flourish in his capital, where the Genoese, Venetians, and Pisans, were very powerful. To establish an agreement among his subjects, he attempted a re-union of the Greek and Latin Churches: but the patriarch and clergy of Constantinople were displeased that he acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope. Michael, angry at their resistance, punished his opponents with deposition and exile; but the vexation caused by these commotions brought on a sickness, which terminated his life at the age of fifty-five years.

(A. D. 1283.) He was succeeded by his son, the pious Andronicus, afterwards surnamed the Elder, who denied his father the burial of a prince and a Christian, and who conciliated the clergy, by annulling the union of the Greek and Latin churches. However, the valour and learning for which this emperor is celebrated, contributed little to the prosperity or glory of his long and uninteresting reign. The abject slave of superstition, he rendered the people discontented and mutinous. His grandson, who was also called Andronicus, erected the standard of rebellion, and having taken Constantinople by surprise, obliged the old emperor to retire to a cloister, in which he wore the monastic habit for two years, and then expired, in the seventy-second year of his age (A. D. 1328).

The conduct of Andronicus the Younger, previously to his ascending the throne, did not promise that his reign would be either fortunate or glorious. "How different," said he, "is my situation from that of the son of Philip?" "Alexander complained that his father left him nothing to conquer: alas! my grandsons will leave me nothing

“to lose” He was wounded and defeated in a ruinous battle with the Turks, who confirmed the establishment of their empire, whilst his own was rapidly hastening to decay. He died in the forty-fifth year of his age, and left an only son, John Palæologus, who was then nine years of age (A. D. 1341).

The weakness of the infant emperor was protected by the genius of John Cantacuzene, the friend and counsellor of Andronicus, who had appointed him regent during the minority of his son. Cantacuzene, however, whilst absent on the public service, was proscribed as an enemy to the church and state, and driven by injustice to revolt. He, therefore, compelled the young emperor to marry his daughter Irene, and to admit him a partner in the empire, with the sole government till John should attain the age of twenty-five. But an open rupture taking place (A. D. 1355), Cantacuzene descended from the throne, embraced the monastic habit and profession, and spent the remainder of his days in piety and studious pursuits. Before his abdication, the Turks had invaded nearly the whole of the empire, and maintained themselves in forts at a short distance from Constantinople, which they now obviously threatened.

(A. D. 1390.) John Palæologus died in consequence of the mortifications which he received from the sultan Bajazet, and was succeeded by his son Manuel, who, on the death of his father, escaped from the Turkish court, and obtained possession of the empire. Under his reign, Bajazet was on the point of rendering himself master of Constantinople, when he was defeated and taken prisoner by the victorious Tamerlane.

(A. D. 1424.) Manuel left two sons, John and Constantine; in the reign of the former of whom the Turks again besieged Constantinople, under their emperor Amurath. But, though Amurath was deprived of this conquest by the bravery of John Hunniades, an Hungarian, Palæologus was compelled to enter into a humiliating treaty with the Turks, and submit to dishonourable conditions. He died in the twenty-seventh year of his reign, and left to his brother Constantine an empire circumscribed almost within the walls of Constantinople (A. D. 1448).

Two years after the accession of Constantine, Amurath was succeeded by Mahomet II, who, resolving to obtain

possession of Constantinople, built phoros, the one in Europe, and the commanded that important strait, capital of the Greek empire. Mah ed his preparations, invested Constant hundred thousand men (A. D. 1461) a siege of forty days, the breac the garrison diminished, the remn paired by discord, and the city tren ruin. On the 29th of May, the fa was made; and the Greeks, driven sank under a multitude of foes. T firm; and after seeing his dearest fr and himself surrounded only by en "His death made such havoc, that to take my life?" He was instant and fell a glorious example of hon expiring with his defenders rather th Thus ended the empire of the East, twenty-three years after it had been stantine. The capture of Constant of the last of the Cæsars, terminated which was the most durable, as well of any on earth.

Questions on the History

EMPERORS.

For what purpose, and under what name, new despotism? On what did he consider for advice was he prevailed on to preserve his power?

What wish did he pretend, and how did he of the people? For what time did he assume did the senate now on him bestow, and what de he entered into his tenth consulship, what did his character, and what power did he exercise?

In whom did Augustus repose unlimited of the character and counsels of Mæcenas? What arts owe to Mæcenas, and what was produced?

What was the assiduity of Augustus, and v What did Augustus ordain with respect to g respect to knights and women of distinction? who refused to marry? at what age were virgins how was an adulterer to be treated? What respect to the senators? How was the freed ferred? What did he appoint with respect to

endeavour to prevent bribery? What was the complexion of his laws, and what was their effect on the Romans?

With whom was Augustus familiar, and what did he permit? What said the veteran soldier when Augustus desired him to apply to an advocate, and what was the effect produced? How did Augustus shew his affability, and what did he say to a person who presented a petition with much awe? What did Mecænas one day when he saw Augustus inclined to be severe, and what was the consequence? How did Augustus treat Cornelius Cinna, the grandson of Pompey, and what did he say to him? What was the effect of this generosity?

During a long reign, in what did Augustus find his own happiness? What was the nature of the wars carried on by Augustus, and were the Roman arms successful? Whom had Augustus married, and who was supposed to be his own son? What was the character of Tiberius? and where, and of what, died Drusus? For what did Augustus feel the greatest affliction? Where, and at what age, did he die? what did the senate decree? and for what did Numericus Atticus receive a large sum of money?

In what did the power of Augustus begin, and in what terminate? and what has been said of him? What did he give the government, and how did he make the people happy? What may be ascribed to his moderation, and in his reign what did the greatest part of mankind see themselves?

When did our Saviour Jesus Christ come into the world, and for what purpose? Where, and when, was he born?

Whom had Augustus named his heir, and what was the character of Tiberius? How did Tiberius injure his popularity, and subvert the happiness of the empire? What appeared in the beginning of his reign?

What did Tiberius reject, and what prohibit? How, and for what, did he check the senate? What reply did he make to some of the governors of the revenues, and what was the commencement of his reign?

What was soon found, and what became of the appearance of a republic?

Why was Tiberius jealous of Germanicus, and what offer did the emperor make him? Whither did Germanicus depart, and what was his fate? How was the empire affected by his death, and how the people of Rome?

How did Tiberius now appear, and what were infused through all the ranks of men? What was revived, and to what did Cremutius Cordus fall a sacrifice?

About the commencement of these sanguinary measures, whom did Tiberius take into his confidence? and to what, and by what means, did Sejanus aspire? What was the fate of Drusus, and of Agrippina? Where did Sejanus persuade Tiberius to spend his time, what was the island of Caprea rendered, and to what did Tiberius abandon himself?

What was now the age of Tiberius, and what was the nature of his person? In what did his whole study center? and whom, and for what reason, did he appoint to the first posts of the empire? What was the nature of his luxuries of another kind, and to what did he compel the most eminent women of Rome? At what did all his inventions aim, and what did he give up in his retreat?

How would it have been happy for mankind, and what did Tiberius become in his retreat? In what was Sejanus ever active, and whom did he place in the city? What caused great numbers to lose their lives,

and what drew down the vengeance of Sejanus? What was the end of his statues, by whom did the people swear, and how was he dead? Of what was Sejanus accused, and what was his fate? What living conduct deserves, and to whom was his death an useful lesson?

What did the death of Sejanus occasion, and of what did the illustrious persons of Rome become? What did Libanus order, or with what was the whole city filled? How many of the senators were put to death, and what did Libanus exclaim? What was he called Libanus?

When did our Saviour Jesus Christ suffer death, and what he accomplish?

Whom did the late emperor nominate for his heir, and why was he called Caligula? How was he received in the city, and what did the senate declare? By whom, and for what, was he praised, and what was the conduct of Caligula? To what did he evince the most regard, and what institutions did he revive? What method of electing magistrates did he attempt to restore, and how was he honoured? What succeeded to moderation and clemency, and what could madness scarcely dictate?

Who was the first object of Caligula's cruelty, and after him who was immolated? What honours did Caligula claim, and what names assume? What did he cause to be done to the heads of Jupiter and some other gods, and where did he seat himself? How often did Caligula claim his divinity, and to whom did he build a temple? Who were his priests, and how did he address the moon? What did he imitate, and what defy?

For what other vices was Caligula notorious, and with whom did he commit incest? Was his envy detestable, and his prodigality remarkable? What kind of dishes did he invent, with what, instead of meat, were his guests sometimes presented, and with what observation?

Whenever Caligula was kind to his wife or mistress, how did he act, and what observe? Why did he command that all exiles should be dead, and why wish that all the Roman people had but one neck?

Against whom did Caligula undertake an expedition, and what did the match indicate? In what did these preparations end, and for what did he give the signal? What spoils did the soldiers collect into their tents, and on what did Caligula congratulate them?

What were equal to his vices, and how was Caligula regarded by his subjects? What was his fate? after what did the senate pant, and whom were they opposed?

How was Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, raised to the throne, and at what age? By what had both his mind and body been affected, and what were his abilities?

What did the commencement of the reign of Claudius augur, and what did he employ himself? What did he undertake to gratify the people, and what induced him to visit Britain? How was the war conducted, and to what was part of the island reduced?

Under whose government did the Britons rise up in arms, by what was a powerful resistance made, and who kept the Romans in continual alarm for nine years? Whether was Caractacus led, and how was he treated? What was the conduct of the Britons during the reign of Claudius?

To whom did Claudius soon commit the concerns of the empire, and of what has the name of Messalina become? Who were subordinated to Messalina, and by whom was Claudius governed? What was the conduct

emperor obliged to commit, and what was the fate of his own family? How did Petus and Arria suffer death, and with what fortitude?

How were the terrors of Claudius worked upon, and to whom did he leave the care of the state? What was his conduct in the infliction of punishment, and in what was he extremely stupid? In his reign how many senators and knights were executed, and in what did the unconcern of Claudius appear?

What was the conduct of Messalina, and on whom did she fix her affections? To what did she oblige Caius Silius, and for what purpose? What did Messalina and Silius on their marriage, and by what was the revel heightened? Of what did Narcissus avail himself to effect the ruin of Messalina, and what was the conduct of Claudius? What was the fate of Silius and of Messalina, and how was an account of the death of the latter received by Claudius?

Whom did Claudius now marry, what was her character, and what was the chief design of Agrippina? After prevailing on the feeble monarch to adopt her son Nero, what crime did she practise, and in what dish was poison given to Claudius?

What effect did the poison produce, and what put a period to the life of Claudius?

How did Nero commence his reign; for whom has its beginning been considered as a model, and of this commencement what said the emperor Trajan? Could the young monarch conceal his innate depravity, how did he appear, and what did the Romans begin to think?

When appeared the natural depravity of Nero, and what increased with his years? What strange pleasure did he take by night, whom did he desert, and whom marry? By whom, and for what purpose, was Nero impelled to commit matricide? What said Agrippina when about to be put to death, and what is Nero reported to have observed on viewing the body of his mother?

What strange contrast appeared in the disposition of Nero, and to what was he in particular addicted? What was his favourite pursuit, and what did his governors endeavour to restrain? In what character was it his darling amusement to exhibit himself on the stage and amphitheatre?

Of what did he resolve to make the tour, and what happened whilst he was singing at Naples? During the time he performed, was any person allowed to depart from the theatre, and how did Vespasian escape with life? Whither did Nero now determine to go? what was his retinue, and what did it resemble? At what games in Greece did he come off conqueror, how many crowns did he obtain, and in what manner did he enter Naples? How did he appear at his entry into Rome, and what were carried before him? Who sat beside him? by whom was he followed? and by whom was this puerile pageant attended?

How would it have been happy for mankind, and what did the cruelties of Nero exceed? What part of Rome was consumed by fire, to whom is the conflagration ascribed, and how is Nero said to have enjoyed the sight? On whom did he attempt to fix the odium of this action, and what did the Christians suffer? What says Tacitus of their torures, and how did Nero regale himself? How did St Paul and St Peter suffer? What orders did Nero give to Seneca the philosopher, and to Lucan the poet, and how did the latter expire?

With what was the whole city filled, and from whom were not masters, nor parents, secure? Whither did the soldiers pursue the suspected and the guilty, and who waited their sentence from the lips of the tyrant?

By whom was Servius Galba proclaimed emperor? what said Nero,

sad with what did he occupy himself? What was the end of Nero? Had been his conduct during the greatest part of his reign? and what was the joy which pervaded the city?

Who was Servius Galba, and from whom was he descended? What did Augustus say to him on a certain occasion? What was his age? where was he when declared emperor, and whither did he march? being informed of the death of Nero? Whose power was he anxious to support, and into what did his punishments seem to devolve? By what means did he lose his popularity, and how was he considered?

What seems to have been desired by Galba, and would the situation of such a transition? Of what could not the people think, and how did they treat the old man? When is it said that he groaned, what did he present to his steward, and what did he give to Canus, a famous poet on the flute?

Whose was the vice of advance, and what excited general discontent and mutiny? On what did Galba resolve, and whom did he appoint to bear? Whose jealousy did this measure excite, and by whom was he declared emperor, and the heads of Galba and Piso Lucianus presented to him? Of what was the reign of Galba remarkable, and what has been said of Galba?

What did the senate and the people on the murder of Galba best know, and what was the character of Otho? Whom did the legions of Lower Germany proclaim emperor, where was a decisive battle fought, and on what and for what reasons did Otho resolve? How and when did Otho die, and why is his end to be lamented?

By whom was Vitellius now proclaimed emperor, and what was his conduct after his arrival in Rome? What was his predominant passion? how did he spend his time, and what would not have been sufficient to maintain his table? By what means did the attendants of the court begin to raise themselves, and what did prodigality produce?

Whom did Vitellius destroy without mercy, and what and for what purpose did he deliver to one of them? Whom did he never pardon, and how did he cancel old claims? How did he treat a Roman knight who had left him his heir, and for what purpose? What did these cruelties render him, what did the astrologers prognosticate, and what writing did they set up in the forum?

What city was Vespasian about to besiege, when he understood that Vitellius was held in universal detestation? What did he secretly flame, and whom did he send into Italy? What was the issue of an attack upon the city of Rome, and what was the fate of Vitellius? How long did his reign last, in what was it begun, and with what continuance, and like whom had the last three sovereigns appeared?

Of what family was Vespasian, by whom was he declared emperor, and for what purpose were messengers sent into Egypt? Whom is it said that he cured before he set out for Rome, and by whom was he met when he approached the metropolis?

How was his son Titus employed, and for what purpose did he try to induce the Jews to surrender? When was Jerusalem destroyed, and how long had it flourished? How many, says Josephus, perished in the siege, and how many were made captive? What became of the survivors, and of what is their posterity a monument and evidence? With what was the return of Titus with his father marked, and what was particularly the triumph of Vespasian and Titus? What temple did Vespasian build, and there deposit, and what temple did he shut up? When was the

temple of Jerns shut, and when open ? and how oft was it shut during the reign of Augustus ?

What abuses did Vespasian resolve to correct, and in what did he join Titus ? What did Vespasian endeavour to restrain in the army, and how did he treat the senators and the knights ? What did he correct in the courts of justice, and of what did he pass a long reign ? What was his only fault, and how was it extenuated ? What says Pliny of Vespasian ?

From what was he averse, and what did he call himself in his answer to the king of Parthia ? Did Vespasian attempt to hide the lowness of his origin, and how did he treat those who would have derived his pedigree from Hercules ? Where was he surprised with an indisposition, and what did he cry out in the spirit of paganism ? Where was he seized with a flux ? What did he observe when he perceived his end approaching ? and how did he die ?

How was Titus received as emperor, and with what did he commence his reign ? Of what was he an example, and what did his prudent conduct procure him ? What said he when recollecting one night that he had done nothing beneficial during that day, and why did he take upon him the office of Pontifex Maximus, or high priest ?

In what did Agricola shew himself expert in Britain, and whom did he subdue ? What did he endeavour to restore to his own army, and to introduce among the conquered ? In what did he cause the sons of their nobility to be instructed, and what did this barbarous people gradually assume ?

What eruption happened in this reign, and what naturalist lost his life on the occasion ? When, and of what, died Titus ? What followed his obsequies, and among whom is history proud to record his name ?

For what was the beginning of Domitian's reign remarkable, and when did Domitian appear in his natural deformity ? What did he neglect, and to what addict himself ? In what did he institute contests, and whom banish from Rome ? How did he entertain the people, and how did he sit as president ? How did he employ his hours of retirement, and what answer did his chamberlain make when asked if the emperor was alone ?

How was Domitian affected by the successes of Agricola in Britain, and whom did that admirable general subdue, and whom overcome ? What did the fleet which he sent out effect, and to what did he reduce the whole island ? How did Domitian receive the account of these successes, and what did he order ? Did he remove Agricola from his command, and when died that general ?

Of whom did Domitian soon find the want, and what did the Sarmatians and the Dacians effect ? What were now the objects of contention, and for what was every season memorable ? How were the barbarians repelled ? in what manner did Domitian return to Rome, and what name did he assume ?

What did the cruelties of the emperor produce, and who assumed the ensigns of imperial dignity ? Did Lucius Antonius's want of success increase the severity of Domitian, and how did he endeavour to discover the guilty ? What was his conduct after presiding at an execution ? What was his extortion, and what his treatment of the Christians ? To what did this monster fall a victim, and by whom was he murdered ? How did Stephanus accomplish his purpose, and by whom was he assisted ?

On the death of Domitian, what was the conduct of the senate, and whom did they declare emperor ? Who was Cocceius Nerva, and for what was he remarkable ?

What did Nerva swear when he came to the throne, and from what

did he release the cities? What laws did he make, and how behaved his people? What did he with regard to statues, and what expenses did he retrench? What regard did he pay to money, and what answers to he return to one who had found a large treasure?

Why did he think of an assistant, and on whom did he fix for a colleague and successor? When died Nerva, and for what was he esteemed, and to whom educated?

Where was Trajan born, and whither did he accompany his father? When made general of the army in Lower Germany, what alterations took place in his way of living? By what were the great qualities of his mind heightened, and what was the modesty which he possessed? How Trajan distinguished, and what talents did he unite in the greatest perfection?

Whether did he prepare to return after the death of Nerva, and how did he conduct his march? How did he treat the countries through which he passed, and in what manner did he enter Rome?

Whether would the most rapid review of Trajan's actions carry us, and what have been the panegyric of contemporaries, and continue to be the summation of posterity? What said he when he gave the sword to the prefect of the praetorian bands? Which was the first war, in which when emperor, he was engaged, and what was its success?

On what did Trajan now employ his attention, and from what did he free Rome? Whom did he entertain, and how did he treat his enemies? On what account would it have been happy for his reign, and in what manner were the Christians treated? In what manner were St. Clement, St. Simeon, and St. Ignatius, put to death?

Who threw off all submission to Rome, and against whom did Trajan turn his arms? What countries did he subdue, and what actions? Where did he die, and at what age?

Who was appointed successor to the throne, and by whom declared emperor? In what was Adrian skilled, and what line of conduct did he adopt? What did he consider an inconvenience to the empire, and what did he make the boundary of the eastern provinces?

In what was Adrian highly skilful, and what were the qualities of his body and mind?

What did his moral virtues equal, and what did he forgive on ascending the throne? How did his moderation and clemency appear, and what did he consider himself an emperor? By what were the virtues of Adrian contrasted, and what did he attempt to conceal?

Why did he visit all the provinces of the empire, and what did he do in his progress? Whom did he choose as his successor, and whom did he oblige him to adopt? What verses was Adrian repeating when he died?

Of what place was Marcus Antoninus a native, and what was his character? What did his frugal conduct enable him to do? How was he esteemed? What was his conduct towards the Christians? What were his other qualities, and for what did he provide during a great famine in Gaul? What answer did he make to any person who attempted to inflame him with a passion for military glory?

How did he reward learned men, and whom did he invite to Rome? For what purpose was Apollonius sent for, and what did Antoninus observe when the former refused to wait on his pupil? What was the state of Antoninus, and at what age did he die?

Whom did Marcus Aurelius admit as his associate in the empire, and what did Rome see for the first time? What were the character, and the example, of Aurelius and of Verus?

By whom was the empire attacked, and by whom were the Catti repelled? By whom were the Britons repressed? What was the nature of the irruption of the Parthians, and who went in person to stop their progress? What was the aid furnished to Verus, what was his conduct, and to whom did he leave the glory of the field? What did the army of Verus carry back from Parthia, and of what was he insensible? Of what, and where, did he die?

How did Aurelius now begin to act? against whom did he march? and what was the result? What was the residue of his reign to his subjects, and what internal regulations did he adopt? Of him what says an ancient author, and where did Aurelius die?

What seemed to die with Aurelius, and from this period what are we to behold?

Who mounted the throne, and what were the age and bodily endowments of Commodus?

How would it have been happy both for himself and mankind? How did he conduct himself, and what did he frequent and commit? What did he sell in the markets, and in what dress did he drive his own chariot? To whom did he commit the government, and of what was his whole reign a tissue? By whom, and at what age, was Commodus assassinated?

Whom did the conspirators invest with the purple, and by what means had Helvius Pertinax risen to esteem? To what did he apply himself, and why did the prætorian soldiers resolve to dethrone him? How and when fell Pertinax, and what was he called?

To whom did the prætorian army offer the empire, and who were the competitors? By whom was Sulpician outbid, and for what sum was the empire sold to Didius Julius? What did he say to the senate, and was the choice of the soldiers confirmed? What was the conduct of Didius, and what rendered him contemptible to the army?

Who were chosen emperors by their respective troops, and what did the senate declare? What was the fate of Didius, and to whom did the senate send ambassadors? For what did Severus prepare, and what was the fate of Pescennius Niger, and of Clodius Albinus?

Against whom did Severus now turn his arms, and with what success? What was his success in Britain, and what wall did he build? What said he, when he felt his end approaching? Where did he die, and what was the character of his reign?

Who were left joint heirs to the empire, and what did Rome experience? How was Geta slain by Caracalla, and what did the latter soon exceed?

Whom did Caracalla first put to death, and why was Papinian beheaded? How suffered the governors, and the adherents, of his brother? and in what did Caracalla spend whole nights? Why did he order his soldiers to attack an audience in the theatre, and what did he publicly declare when he perceived that he was hated?

After what transactions did Caracalla resolve to lead his soldiers through every part of the empire? What was his conduct in Germany, and in Macedonia? What did he in the amphitheatre at Alexandria, and what were the duration and character of his reign?

Whom did the military now invest with the purple, and did the senate consent to the adoption of his son Diadumenus? By whom, and after what time, were Macrinus and his son put to death?

Who ascended the throne, and what was the character of Elhoga-balus? Of what is his short life a tissue, and whom did he marry, and whom divorce? What did he build for women, and what did he add to these

solles? What did his suppers cost, and how was he dressed? What testified the folly of a waston and vicious boy, and how did he drive his chariot? How did he shew the magnitude of Rome, and whom did he invite to his table? What did he unite to these childish tricks? How did he treat his guests? and how strive to foretel what was to happen? Whom did he adopt as his successor, and what was the fate of Helogabalus?

Who was declared emperor, and what were the character and talents of Alexander? What did he possess when only sixteen years of age?

In what did Alexander spend the first part of his reign, and what could he say with regard to the purchase of offices or places? What did he say of magistrates who took bribes, and how act to those who were remarkable for their justice and integrity?

Was his clemency extended to the Christians, and how did he decide between them and a company of cooks and vintners? What were his abilities in war, and how did he defer the ruin of the empire? What was the fate of Alexander, and what the character of his reign?

Who was elected emperor, and who was Maximin? What were his stature and strength, and how much did he eat and drink in a day? What was the nature of his frame and mind?

Without what was he the first emperor, and how did he regard the senate? To whom did he extend his cruelty?

What were his military operations, whom did he overthrow, and whom resolve to subdue? What was his conduct in these expeditions, and what did he consider it his duty?

How were the Christians treated, and what fixed an indelible disgrace on the memory of Maximin? Whither spread a spirit of general discontent, and whom did the provinces of Africa elect emperors? Was this election confirmed by the senate, and what was the fate of the Gordians? Whom did the senate choose joint emperors? what was the fate of Maximin and his son? and what does the conduct of Maximin serve to evince?

How did Pupienus and Balbinus discharge their duties, and what hastened their downfall? By whom were they dispatched, and where were their bodies left?

Whom did the mutineers declare emperor, and by whom was their choice confirmed? What was the age of Gordian, what was his character, and what did he endeavour to unite? What was his learning, and whom did he marry? By whom was Gordian murdered, and what was the character of his reign?

Whom did the army and the senate acknowledge emperor? whom did Philip associate with him in the empire? and by what was his government signalized? Where were Philip and his son said to have been converted to Christianity, and does this honour the Christian faith? When was Philip killed?

Who was proclaimed emperor, and what qualities of Decius seemed to stop the decline of the Roman empire? To whom did the senate vote Decius not inferior, and whose dignity and welfare did he consult? Whom did he allow to be elected, and who was chosen censor?

How and by what was the state enfeebled, and how were the Christians treated? By what was this persecution succeeded, and what was the fate of Decius? At what age did he die, and what was the character which he left?

Who was declared emperor, and what and for what purpose did Gallus agree to pay the Goths?

What was the state of the Roman provinces at this period, and what

did the Goths, the Persians, and the Scythians? How did the emperor pass his time, and what were the pagans permitted? By what were these calamities succeeded and followed? What was the fate of Gallus, and what did the empire suffer in his reign? What army chose Valerian to succeed to the throne? What were the attempts of Valerian, and by whom was he taken prisoner? How was he treated by Sapor, and for what is he said to have been used, and what observed Sapor on such occasions? What was the end of Valerian?

Who was chosen emperor, and what did the Germans and other nations in the reign of Galienus? How did Galienus pass his time during the attacks of the barbarians, and how did he regard the loss of his provinces, or the calamities of the state? To what was his power reduced, where and by whom was he slain, and what character did he leave?

Who was now appointed emperor, and what were the parentage, country, and merits of Flavius Claudius? What was his character, and for what was he remarkable? What were the other features of his character? Did he arrest the decline of the empire, and what was the character of his reign? Of what did he die, and what is he said to have united in himself?

Whom did the army choose, of what parentage was Aurelian born, and what were his courage and strength? In what was the whole of this monarch's reign spent, and how did he endeavour to bring back virtue? In what was he rigid, and in what did he frequently degenerate into cruelty? How were the Christians treated, and by what is it said that he was deterred from signing certain edicts against them? By what was he slain?

Of whom did the senate make choice, and what were the merits and character of Tacitus? How did he honour the works of his name sake Tacitus, the historian? Where, and of what, did he die?

Whom did the army elevate to the throne, and what was the character of Probus? What was his parentage, and what invasions did he repress? How was he slain, and what monument did his soldiers erect to him?

Whom did the army choose as his successor, whom did Carus unite with him, and how was he killed? What disorder afflicted Numerian, and by whom was he murdered? In what manner was the dead body disposed of, and who was chosen emperor? Whom did Dioclesian slay, and what prophecy thereby fulfil?

Who was Dioclesian, and to what did he owe his exaltation? What did the beginning of his reign not deceive, and how did he treat his enemies?

What happened in this reign, and of what are we informed in an inscription regarding the Christians? What were these attempts, and did Christianity prevail?

What did Dioclesian introduce, and what did he share with Maximian his general? Who were created Cæsars, and how were the departments or provinces governed? To whom did Dioclesian and Maximian leave the government? Whither did Dioclesian remove, and how did he spend his time? How long did his reign continue, and to what was his authority adapted?

Who were chosen as the successors of the two emperors, and what was the character of Constantius Chlorus, and of Galerius? What was Constantius appoint to govern, and what Galerius? What did the government of the former comprehend, and what that of the latter? What two partners more did they take in? Where died Constantius,

and whom did he appoint his successor? What did Galerius see, and of what did he die?

Who possessed a preponderance of power at this period, and between whom was the government divided? What is Constantine said to have seen in Gaul, and what did he cause to be made, and how named? Of what did he make a public avowal, and where was Maximian defeated and drowned? What was the fate of Maxima, and after some time what was Licinius permitted?

On what did Constantine now resolve, and what had he already effected? What did he now command, and what was the punishment of Arius?

Whither, and for what reason, did he transfer the seat of the empire from Rome? what did this measure precipitate? and how did the empire perish?

What were the ideas of Constantine, and what did he desire to build? Of what situation did he make choice, and why is it said that he fixed on Byzantium? How was Byzantium situated, and with what furnished? How did he beautify this city, and to whom dedicate it? Did he live to feel the calamities of his impolicy, and when did he die? How is the character of Constantine delineated by Christian, and also by heathen writers? Of what does it seem to have been composed? What religion did he establish, and what did his scheme of posterity hasten?

What sons did Constantine leave, and on whom had he also conferred the title of Cæsar? How were the nephews of the deceased emperor excluded, and who alone were to participate in the empire?

What was the fate of Constantine, the eldest son of the late emperor, and what that of Constans, his brother? Who was Magnentius, and by whom was he defeated?

Under whom was the whole Roman empire once more united, and what was the conduct of Constantius? To whom did he marry his cousin Julian, and to what appoint him? Whither was Julian sent, and why did the emperor increase his authority?

How did Julian as Cæsar, and Constantius, pass their time, and to the former restore the glory of the Roman arms? What did the victories of Julian excite, and what did Constantius require from the Cæsar?

When did this order reach Julian, and what did he apprehend?

How did Julian act in this crucial situation, and of what did he imitate Decentius?

Was the prediction verified, and of what did the soldiers complain?

What did Julian permit, and also offer them, and what did the commander not refuse? What did Julian recommend to them, and what did the soldiers mutually lament? How and for what reason was a conspiracy formed, and what irrevocable words did the impatient multitude pronounce?

How was Julian induced to accept the dignity of Augustus, and what did he propose to Constantius? What did Constantius require, and towards what had Julian made a considerable progress when Constantius died? What was the character of Constantius, and what was his religion?

When Julian had acquired the undisturbed possession of the Roman empire, what was his first object, and what did he then endeavour? How did he seek to raise the character of the pagan priests, and by what did he attack the Christians?

How did this prince, after ascending the throne, perform the duties of his station, and by what did he not suffer either his body or mind to be

relaxed? How did he portion his meals and his time, and in what did he wrap himself up? What was the form of his body, and what the character of his mind? What did he seem to possess, and of what was he not destitute?

What said Julian to a father who had disinherited his son, in consequence of his renouncing Christianity for paganism, and what answered the father? What replied the emperor, and what said he to the son?

What attracted the ambitious mind of the emperor, and what did he hope from restoring the ancient temple at Jerusalem? What could not effectuate the purpose, and what does Ammianus Marcellinus assert?

To what was Julian a slave, and in what did he believe? Whither did he march, and for what purpose, and at what age was he slain? What is the character given of him by infidels, and by Christians? What does he appear to have been, and for what was it probably fortunate for the world?

Whom did the Roman troops choose for their emperor, and by what did Jovian purchase a free retreat from the dominions of Persia? Did Jovian favour Christianity? Where was he found dead?

How long did the Roman throne remain without a master, and whom did the soldiers elect emperor? Whom did Valentinian associate with himself in the government, and by what did he occasion the final separation of the Western and Eastern empires?

Whither were the barbarians gradually pushing their inroads at this juncture? What did the Germans attack? By whom was Pannonia over-run? By whom was Britain invaded? By whom, Spain? and by whom, Africa? What did it require to repress such invasions, and what were Jovian, Theodosius and his son, considered? What was the domestic government of Valentinian, and what did he favour? What did his stern disposition generally render him, and how did he punish every deviation from duty? How did he punish his wife Severa, and what examples of torture did he exhibit? Why was it probably considered as meritorious to deceive him, and was his anger little short of madness? Were there bright parts in the character of Valentinian, and so what did his moderate government contribute? At what age did he die, and to whom leave his throne?

What competitor arose against Valens in the East, and what was his fate? How did he support the Arians, and to what direct his attention? How did he treat certain books, and their possessors? Whom and for what reason did he order to be massacred, and on whom did the persecution fall heaviest? What did this conduct produce, and what became a common imprecation? With whom was Valens constantly engaged in war, and where were the Romans defeated in a pitched battle? What was the fate of Valens, and what did the Goths?

Of what did Gratian find himself possessed, and on whom did he prevail to become his associate? How was religion treated, and what was the early fame of Gratian? What did the succeeding years undermine, and of whom did he become the dupe? What did the soldiers, and what was the fate of Gratian?

What did Theodosius stipulate, and what was the conduct of Maximus? Whom did Theodosius defeat, and what did he annex to the states of Valentinian the Second?

What was the fate of Valentinian II., and who was invested with the purple? Whose sole authority did the Roman world now acknowledge, and what were the character and conduct of Theodosius? Where did he die, and to whom leave the throne of Constantinople, and to whom the sceptre of the West?

Who had been appointed minister to Arcadius, and who to Honorius and what was the character of Rufinus, and of Stilicho? What in Theodosius recommended to Stilicho, and of what did Stilicho soon after stand in need? How was he disappointed, and whom did the emperor Arcadius prefer?

Whom did Honorius marry, and what were his talents? Whose abilities compensated for his incapacity, and repelled the barbarians?

Whither had the Goths spread themselves, and what treaty did they conclude? Whither did Alaric penetrate, and by whom was he defeated?

At what age died Arcadius, and to whom did he leave the throne of the East? Why did Honorius cause Stilicho to be assassinated, and how did he treat his wife and son?

To what place did Alaric lay siege, and how did he rise in his demands? In what was Honorius dilatory, and by what means was Rome abandoned to the fury of the tribes of Germany and Scythia? What said Alaric to his soldiers on entering the gate of the city? How long did the pillage last, and what was the fate of Rome?

When died Alaric, and what treaty did Honorius conclude with his successor Adolphus? What did Honorius allow to the Burgundians, and from what was the Western empire gradually mouldering?

Under whose tuition governed Theodosius the Second, emperor of the East, and what was the character of Pulcheria? Whom did Theodosius marry?

By whom was the empire of the West directed? Of what did Honorius, and with what was his reign pregnant?

How did Britain become independent of the Roman power, and what were the claims of allegiance succeeded?

Who usurped the throne of the West, and by whom was John supported? Whom did Theodosius invest with supreme authority under the regency of his mother, and by what were the claims of Valentinian and Placidia supported? How was the city of Ravenna taken, and what was the fate of the usurper John?

Was Aetius again received into favour, and what was his conduct to Boniface, an officer held in esteem at the court of Valentinian? Why did Boniface refuse to obey the imperial mandate, and what was declared?

What was Aetius appointed, and by whom was he defeated? What did Boniface call to his assistance, and on what did Genseric and he agree? Why did Boniface endeavour afterwards to free Africa from the Vandals, and how did the latter treat the proposals? Where was Boniface besieged, and what had he the mortification to behold?

By whom was the Eastern empire attacked during the whole reign of Theodosius, and how are these savage hordes characterized by a contemporary author? What will the philosopher readily perceive?

Whither did the Huns extend their conquests, and what did Theodosius ingloriously submit to pay to Attila? What did the Britons implore, and what answer did they receive? At what age died Theodosius the Second, and what was his character?

Who remained sole mistress of the empire, and whom did Pulcheria marry, and invest with the imperial purple? Who was Marcian, and how had he risen from the ranks of the army?

What has Attila been called, and whom did he menace? After plundering the Romans of the East, whither did he turn his arms, and how did Valentinian the Second avert this scourge from Italy? From

whom was the earth delivered by the death of Attila? By whom was the emperor of the West assassinated, and what was his character?

Who was saluted emperor by the senate, and whose assistance did the empress Eudoxia implore? With what did Genseric arrive at the mouth of the Tiber, and what was the fate of Maximin? By whom was Rome pillaged, and with what did Genseric return to Carthage?

Who was nominated to the sceptre of the West, and by whom was Avitus deposed? What character did Avitus assume, and to what was he sacrificed?

Whom did Ricimer elevate to the throne, and what were the virtues and the end of Majorian? To what tended all the civil regulations of Majorian, and to what principally pointed his military preparations? Whom did he assemble in the plains of Liguria, and what was his success against Genseric? What obliged Majorian to resign the sceptre, and of what was it reported that he died?

Whom did Ricimer now invest with the purple, and how long lasted the life and reign of Leobius Severus? By what was Italy afflicted? what did the emperor of the East purchase? and to what was the fury of the Vandals confined?

On the death of Marcian who was raised to the throne of the Eastern empire, and whom did Leo invest with the purple of the West? On what did Ricimer resolve, what crimes did he renew, and whom did he proclaim? What was the fate of Olybrius, and of Ricimer?

Whom did Leo raise up against Glycerius, and for what reason? By whom was Julius Nepos deposed, and who was Orestes? Whom did the troops acknowledge emperor of the West, and what was the fate of Orestes and Augustulus? What did Odoacer cause himself to be proclaimed?

When terminated the empire of the West, and of what have writers failed not to remark?

By whom was Britain now possessed? By whom, Spain? By whom, Africa? By whom, Gaul? To whom did Italy and Rome submit, and what produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric? By what was the whole mass corrupted and enervated, and by what overthrown and destroyed?

Who governed the East, and of whom did Leo get rid? To whom did he unite Ariadne his younger daughter, and whom create Cæsar?

Of what died Leo, and on whom devolved the empire? When died his grandson Leo, and who was left sole emperor? What was the character of Zeno? to what was he subject? and was he precipitately interred? Was any noise heard in the coffin, and what was discovered some days after? At what age died Zeno?

On whom did Ariadne bestow her hand and the imperial title, and with what acclamation was Anastasius hailed? How did this prince treat the Eutychians? and by what was a hostile fleet set on fire? What was the conduct of Anastasius at first, and what afterwards? How, and at what age, did he die?

Who was invested with the purple? of what was Justin destitute? and how was he preserved from exposing his incapacity? On whose diligence, and whose talents, did he rely?

On the death of Justin, who ascended the throne, and what surname did Justinian afterwards obtain? What was Justinian's character, and by what was the Roman name raised from its abasement? Whether did Belisarius, the Roman general, set out with a numerous army and

a powerful fleet, and what did he achieve in Africa? Whither was the unfortunate Gelimer led, and what did the emperor bestow on him?

What cities did Belisarius take in Sicily, and what in Italy? In other places followed the submission of Rome, and was Italy once restored to its ancient masters? At what price did Justinian purchase a peace from the Persians?

Did Belisarius find the Gothic monarchy in Italy restored by Totila, and to what was he obliged to leave Rome? Did Belisarius resign himself of Rome, and with what sank the fame of Totila?

For whom was reserved the credit of completing the conquest of Italy, and in whose procession did Rome for the last time see the senate of a triumph? To what was the capital of Italy soon after occupied, and who filled the throne of the Gothic kings? What did Belisarius win in a last victory save? Of what was the Roman general accused, and after appearing before the council how was he treated? Did Innocence become conspicuous, and when happened his death, to what was it hastened? What is the story, that Belisarius was deprived of his eyes, and obliged to beg his bread? When died Justinian, what affords a noble monument of his spirit and industry?

By whom was Justinian succeeded, and with what are the first years of Justin the Second's reign marked? Where did the Lombards enter themselves, and with what was the empire afflicted? By what was the capital and the provinces exhausted? Whom did Justinian choose of as his immediate successor, and in what did he spend the four years of his life?

What was the character of Tiberius, what was his fate, and on what did he bestow the diadem?

Amidst what did Maurice ascend the throne, and what were his character and conduct? What did the army beyond the Danube, whither escaped Maurice with his wife and children? What was the unhappy end of the emperor and his children?

What was the character of Phocas and of his wife, and who was called on to deliver the earth from Phocas?

Who was acknowledged emperor, and in what was Heraclius conversed? What provinces did he recover, and what did Mahomet do to spread at this time? What was the character of Heraclius, and did he not reflect on the dangers of the empire?

By whom was Heraclius succeeded, and what is believed to have been the fate of Constantine? Whom did the senate invest with purple, and how did Constantine treat his brother Theodosius? What was the end of Constantine?

By whom was Constantine succeeded, and whither did the Saracens penetrate in the reign of Constantine? What was the character of Constantine, and when did he die?

How governed Justinian the Second, and who was proclaimed emperor? By whom was Leontius deposed, and whom did Justinian put to death? What were employed by this monster during the six years of his new reign?

What was the answer of Justinian, when asked, in a storm at Constantinople, to forgive his enemies? and how did he shew his vindictive disposition in his treatment of the inhabitants of the Chersonesus? What did the emperor expressly forbid the executioners? why was Philippos claimed? and who procured the death of Justinian? On what did Justinian declare war against Terbelus?

Was Philippicus deposed, and whom did the people invest with the purple? What did his general Leo negotiate with Anastasius?

What lost the empire of the East in the reign of Leo, and to what submitted Rome? What does pope signify, and to whom was the name given? By what were these revolutions chiefly produced, and whom did Leo and his successors persecute?

To what were the primitive Christians possessed with an unconquerable aversion, and in what consisted the first introduction of the symbolic worship? Who was next represented, and what did the Virgin Mary soon claim and obtain?

How stole the worship of images into the church, and by what were the Greeks awakened? What did many sensible Christians begin to express, and what was the policy of Leo? In the reformation of religion, what was the conduct of Leo? On what were the people and clergy divided, and to what could not the cities of the East be brought?

What did the Saracens, and when died Leo?

By what appellation was Constantine usually known, and against whom was he successful? Whom did he persecute? By whom was he succeeded, and what were the conduct and reign of Leo IV.

What did Leo declare his wife Irene, and what was her conduct to Constantine VI.? To whom did he take an oath of fidelity, and by whom was she proclaimed sovereign? Was Constantine restored to his liberty, and where was his mother confined?

How did she obtain an ascendancy over him, and what did he commit by her advice? Whom did she send to depose Constantine, and how was he put to death?

What proposal did Irene eagerly embrace, and for what reason and by what means was she prevented from espousing Charlemagne? What was the character of Irene?

What did Nicephorus unite in his character, and what was his conduct? By whom was he slain, and what did his son Stauracius inherit? Who was now invested with the purple, and what were the character and conduct of Michael?

By whom was he succeeded, and where had Leo V. been educated? By whom was he deposed, and what did Michael the Stammerer display? By whom was Michael succeeded, and what was the character of Theophilus?

What did he say, when he was told that a vessel richly laden, which he saw in the port of Constantinople, belonged to the empress Theodora, and what was done to the vessel? What did he revive, and when die?

With what was Theodora entrusted, and what was the conduct of Michael III.? By whom was Michael slain?

How governed Basil, and how was he beloved? Whom did he raise? How did he treat his son Leo, and by what means was the latter restored to liberty? What wrote Basil, and when did he expire?

By whom was he succeeded, and what composed Leo VI.? What caused a schism in the Greek church, and were matters at length accommodated? With whom did he carry on war, and to what was his own attention directed? Whose laws did he revise, and to whom bequeath the crown?

Why was Constantine VII. surnamed Porphyrogenitus, and under whose guardianship was he placed? To whom did Zoe give the command of the troops? what design formed Romanus and Leo? and which faction obtained the ascendancy? What did Romanus, and to what did

he induces Constantine? What titles did Romanus assume, and what power take into his hands? What designs formed Constantine, and how did he accomplish his purpose? What did his son Romanus attempt against Constantine, and how was it frustrated?

By whom was Constantine succeeded, and what were the chance and death of Romanus?

What sons left Romanus, and what was the conduct of Theophanu? What was the character of Nicephorus Phocas, and what was his last

Whom did John Zimiscea admit as his partners in the empire, and what title did he deserve? What was the manner of his death, and how was he lamented?

What is uncertain, and what certain, respecting Theophanu? By whom was she recalled, and for what purpose? Who usurped the sovereign authority, and by whom and whither was Bardas Sclerus obliged to flee? Why did Bardas Phocas and Bardas Sclerus divide the empire between them? What happened to the two Bardases?

What was the conduct of Constantine, and of Basil? On the death of Basil, in what employed Constantine his time and authority? What were swept away by the Normans in the tenth century, and what did the empire of the East still equal?

On the death of Constantine IX., on whom devolved the sceptre of the East? What did the whole conduct of Romanus Argyrus prove, and by whom was he put to death? Whom did John the eunuch elevate to the throne, and whom did Michael Calaphates banish? By whom was Zoe restored, and whom did she associate with her in the empire? Whom did Zoe marry, how governed Monomachus, and how did he treat Theodora? Why did Theodora cause herself to be declared empress, and what was the effect on Monomachus?

How reigned Theodora, to whom did she leave the sceptre, and whom did the army elevate to the throne?

What means did Isaac Comnenus use to replenish the coffers of the state, and whom did he nominate as his successor? What was the conduct of Constantine XI., and to whom did he leave the empire?

What did the discontented and the ambitious declare? What design did Eudocia the regent form in favour of Diogenes, and on what did she resolve to prevent the people from opposing her inclinations?

What did she pretend to the patriarch John Xiphilino, and what did he restore to Eudocia? Whom did Eudocia marry, and what was the fate of Romanus Diogenes?

Under the triple government of the house of Ducas, in whose hands was the power vested? Who erected the standard of rebellion, and assumed the purple, and with what was the feeble emperor rewarded?

In whose favour was Botaniates obliged to resign the empire, and what did Alexius Comnenus cause himself to be proclaimed? What did Botaniates prefer, and what vestments did he assume?

What did Alexius Comnenus retard, and what did his actions evince? What had the troops of Alexius committed, and what penance was exacted and fulfilled? What property did he appropriate, and in what did this liberty end?

With whom did this prince wage war, and of what has Alexius been accused? By what were the crusaders impelled, and why did they quit their native homes? What were the character and conduct of Alexius Comnenus?

Who succeeded to the throne, and what did John Comnenus unite

What punishment did he abolish, and whose character revive? What invasions did he repel, and what proved fatal to him?

What urged the crusaders against Manuel Comnenus, and of what was he the inventor? What habit did he assume, and for what reason? To whom did he leave the crown, and what was the fate of Alexius Comnenus, and of all attached to his family?

How were the nobility treated, and what were the hypocrisy and cruelty of the tyrant Andronicus? Of what did the people grow tired, and whom did they proclaim emperor? How did Andronicus endeavour to save himself, and what was his fate? What expressions did he use in the midst of his tortures, and why may it be said that ambition is of every age?

From whom was Isaac Angelus descended, and by what did he gain the affections of the people? When was the third crusade undertaken, and what furnished a pretext to Alexius the brother of Isaac to subvert the throne? Who re-established Isaac and his son Alexius on the throne, and by whom were they deposed and put to death?

Whom did this shocking scene enrage, and what was the issue of a general assault upon the city of Constantinople? What was the conduct of the conquerors, and to what amounted the general booty? How did Murtzuphlus escape, and when did this great revolution take place?

Where was the Latin empire of Constantinople fixed, and within what circumscribed? Who was proclaimed emperor? Into what was Thessaly erected? Whither did the Venetians extend their settlements? What did Theodorus Lascaris assume, and where fix his residence? What was Alexius, the lineal heir of the Comneni, appointed? What was the effect of these arrangements? By whom was Baldwin put to death?

By whom was Baldwin succeeded, and when did Henry die?

Whom did the barons of France now raise to the throne, and by whose order was Peter of Courtenay assassinated? By whom was he succeeded, and by whom were the French pressed in the reign of Robert? What did Baldwin of Courtenay, his successor, gradually lose? How did Michael Palæologus take the capital, and when did the Greeks again become masters of Constantinople?

To what principally did Michael turn his attention? of what did he attempt a re-union? and on what account were the patriarch and clergy of Constantinople displeased? How did Michael punish his opponents, by what was his death occasioned?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was the conduct of Andronicus surnamed the Elder? To what did the valour and learning of this emperor contribute, and what did he render the people? Who erected the standard of rebellion, and obliged the old emperor to retire to a cloister?

What did the conduct of Andronicus the Younger promise, previously to his ascending the throne, and what did he observe of his grandfather? In what was he wounded and defeated, and when did he die?

By what was the weakness of the infant John Palæologus protected? By what was Cantacuzene driven to revolt, and to what did he compel the young emperor? Why did Cantacuzene descend from the throne, and embrace the monastic habit and profession? Before this, what had the Turks invaded, and what did they now threaten?

Of what died John Palæologus, and by whom was he succeeded?

Under the reign of Manuel, of what was he doing himself master?

What sons did Manuel leave, and in the year Constantinople again besieged? Into what was he compelled to enter, and when did he die?

Where did Mahomet build two forts which he took from the Greek empire, and with what number of soldiers? After a siege of forty days in which he was slain, when did the Greeks under a multitude of soldiers sink the Greeks under a multitude of soldiers? How did Constantine conduct himself, and of what did he die? When ended the empire of the East, and where was it terminated?

CARTHAGE.

CARTHAGE, which was the capital of the world during so many years, was founded by the Paterculus, 65; according to others, 72; and, according to others, 100, before Romulus began to build upon it. It is universally agreed, that it was founded by the Phoenicians, who, under the conduct of Dido, on the coast of Africa, and fixed the bottom of a gulph, on a peninsula, where Tunis now stands. Of all the grandeur of this city, not a wreck now remains; the potent Carthage lies buried under its walls.

At one time, the Carthaginians possessed part of Spain, Sicily, and the island of Sardinia, besides their establishments in the support and extension of their trade. The territory round them consisted of the kingdom of Tunis; and the town of Carthage was part of the Carthaginian dominions, as was Tunes. Utica was reckoned next to that, Hippo. The greater number of cities were situated on lakes; and for the support of every spot capable of culture, amidst the mountains which surrounded them, became the object of their utmost industry could produce or of fertility along the edges of the lakes and rivers, which water this region. In general observation, however, the ground

self stood, produced the most abundant crops of every kind of grain.

It is supposed that monarchy was the original government of Carthage, and the period of its assuming the form of a republic is unknown. The republic consisted of the people, a very numerous senate, and two suffetes or presiding magistrates. The suffetes corresponded in rank and power with the consuls at Rome, and were elected from the richest of the citizens, that they might be able to support their dignity with greater splendour. The election of a senator depended on the voice of the people and the senators themselves. When the votes of the senate were unanimous, they possessed the power of giving laws, and from them there was no appeal; but when the suffrages were divided, or when the suffetes stood alone, the matter was referred to the people, whose decree was final. "Hence," says Polybius, "arose the misfortunes of Carthage; since in the last Punic wars, the judgment of the people, misled by their orators, prevailed over the wiser dictates of the senate." There were also two other tribunals, that of the centumviri, or council of a hundred, chosen from the senators; and that of the quinqueviri, or council of five, who were elected from the members of the centumvirate. It seems probable, that the centumvirate discussed and suggested matters to the senate, and that the quinquevirate presided over all, even the suffetes themselves.

At Carthage, the detestable custom of offering children to a god, who was supposed to be Saturn, and burning them in honour of him, remained in force for a long time. These children, who were of the first families, and whose mothers were bound to assist at the dreadful sacrifice, were esteemed in proportion as they shewed no marks of sensibility. The superstitious Carthaginians, in times of distress, burnt at once two hundred in number; and they adored most of the Egyptian, Greek, Roman, and Phœnician gods.

None but the condemned were allowed to be messengers of any public or private calamity, it being supposed that the herald of any bad news would meet with a speedy dissolution. On this supposition, criminals were reserved expressly for that purpose. When the city was threatened with any great misfortune, the walls were immediately hung with black. The soldiers were forbidden to drink wine

during a campaign; and the magistrates during their office. Every officer and soldier wore as many rings as he had served campaigns. On the return of a general from an unsuccessful expedition, though he was free from the imputation of blame, he suffered death; and yet, notwithstanding this inhuman severity, the army never wanted a commander. In order to excite hospitality, they produced a broken mark, which had been reciprocally interchanged and thus they presented to each other on meeting, and passed it to their families by inheritance. The Carthaginians were accused by the Romans of obduracy, and even of ferocity. But it ought to be remembered, that the prejudices of the Romans against this people were extremely great; for Cicero, when speaking of a Punic philosopher could not avoid saying, with a sarcastic sneer, that "he was sensible enough for a Carthaginian." They themselves were not prone to raillery; but their nobles were insupportably arrogant. But, whatever may have been the general character of this people, it is certain that there might be found among them men of the greatest generosity and the most heroic bravery.

The commodities of their own produce, with which the Carthaginians supplied other nations, were wheat, fruits of every kind, wax, honey, oil, and skins of beasts. Their chief manufacture consisted in the materials necessary for the equipment of vessels, and they are supposed to have been the inventors of galleys with four rows of oars, and also of large cables. They procured from Egypt, fine hemp, paper, and wheat; from the coasts of the Red Sea, spices, aromatics, gold, pearls, and precious stones; and from Tyre and Phœnicia, purple and scarlet, rich stuffs, and tapestry. On their return from the Western coasts to which they carried their different commodities for sale, they brought back to the East, iron, tin, lead and brass. They reaped the greatest emolument from their trade with the Persians, Garamantes, and Ethiopians, which was conducted by means of caravans; and this kind of commerce was esteemed highly honourable even by the leading members of the state.

They had a peculiar method of trading with the Libyans, the manner of which was a convincing proof of their mutual integrity, and which may not be unworthy of notice. The Carthaginians having entered some of their bays, they unloaded their merchandises, and placing them upon an

eminence, returned to their ships, after having raised a thick smoke, which made known their arrival to the Libyans. The latter immediately repaired to the spot where the goods were deposited, and having placed a certain quantity of gold near it, again retreated to a certain distance. If, on the return of the Carthaginians, the gold was considered as adequate to the value of the merchandise, they accepted it, and immediately set sail; but if, on the other hand, they did not conceive the sum sufficient, they again retired to their vessels without taking any thing with them; and the Libyans, finding the bargain not concluded, increased the sum, till it was thought by the Carthaginians proportionate to the value of the merchandise. Nor did either of these people ever attempt to take improper advantages over the other, though they had such repeated opportunities. This conduct, though founded on the sordid basis of interest, claims our admiration and esteem.

From the few existing remains of the Punic language, it appears to have been of Phœnician origin; and the written characters of the Carthaginians were composed partly of Phœnician, and partly of Hebrew. Much encouragement, certainly, was not given by the Carthaginians to the promotion of the sciences; yet it would be unjust to affirm, that they treated them with absolute neglect. Not only the archives of this people, but all their literary and historical works, were destroyed by the Romans; an act which greatly derogates from the rank of these governors of the universe, as it strongly evinces a mean jealousy, lest the fame of this nation should rival their own. The Carthaginians were extremely superstitious and credulous, with respect to oracles and divinations. The Romans, who were their inveterate enemies, characterized them as a people solely employed in amassing riches, and so devoid of good faith, that *fides Punica*, *Carthaginian faith*, became a proverbial expression to denote deceit and dishonesty.

The Carthaginians traded to Spain for gold, and built Carthagera and Gades, now Cadiz; and coasting along the western shore of Africa, had establishments as far as the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude. Under Himilco, they explored the western coast of Europe; and, under Hanno, they made the circuit of Africa, and discovered the isles of Britain. Against the Mauritians,

Numidians, and other neighbouring nations, they employed mercenary troops, which they levied in Africa, Spain, Gaul, and Greece.

(B. C. 869.) Dido, the founder of Carthage, having escaped from the avarice of Pygmalion, king of Tyre, landed on the African coast, and demanded only as much ground as the hide of an ox would encompass. This being granted, she cut the skin into narrow strips, and by that means encircled a large extent of territory, on which she built the citadel called Byrsa. The new city soon became populous and flourishing, and enriched by commerce. Dido, in order to avoid being the wife of Jarbas, a neighbouring prince, caused a funeral pile to be erected, and with a dagger put a period to her existence.

After some maritime expeditions, which rendered Carthage formidable even to the Phœceans, a nation equally skilled in naval affairs with themselves, and after obtaining successes in Sicily, the advantages of which were suspended by domestic commotion, they turned their arms against Sardinia, but were unsuccessful. Incensed at their defeat, they banished the remaining portion of the army, together with their general Machæus, who had previously conquered for them a part of Sicily, and considerably extended their boundaries in Africa. Feeling hurt at the ignominy which he so unjustly experienced, Machæus invested Carthage with the companions of his exile, and obliged it to surrender, but was killed soon after.

The Carthaginians had gradually extended their power over all the islands of the Mediterranean, except Sicily, against which they sent a very strong and powerful armament under the command of Hamilcar, who received an entire defeat from Gelon and Theron, the tyrants of Syracuse and Agrigentum (B. C. 480). Being solicited by the Egestines to protect them from the assaults of the Selinuntines, two small states in Sicily, the republic confided another expedition against Sicily to Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, and to his relation Imilcar (B. C. 412.) Hannibal died of the plague under the walls of Agrigentum, and Imilcar was obliged to return to Africa with the wreck of the most flourishing army that Carthage had ever seen.

However, reiterated ill success could not damp the spirits, nor lessen the zeal, of the Carthaginians, who sent another powerful army into Sicily, and defeated Agatho-

cles, tyrant of Syracuse. Agathocles, at a time when his enemies thought that he could not escape them, equipped an armament, and, transferring the war into Africa, laid siege to Carthage. After ravaging Sicily and Africa, the Syracusans concluded a peace on conditions which scarcely altered the position of the Carthaginians in Sicily.

(B. C. 264.) The first Punic war was commenced by the Romans, in expectation of gaining Sicily and Sardinia, which would naturally become the reward of the conqueror. The ostensible cause, however, was the offer of the Mamertines to put their city into the possession of the Romans, whose protection they requested, and who sent Cains Claudius to their assistance. The Carthaginians attacked and destroyed the fleet of the Romans, who, notwithstanding their defeat, made a descent upon Sicily, and having entered into an alliance with Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, secured to themselves the possession of several towns. At length, the Romans, by means of the *corvi**, which had been lately invented, obtained a decided superiority over their rivals on the ocean, the natural element of the Carthaginians, and carried the war into Africa, and under the very walls of Carthage. They were, however, defeated, and expelled Africa, but remained still powerful in Sicily, where only the town of Lilybæum held out for the Carthaginians. After the war had continued for twenty-four years, with various success, a peace was concluded with the Romans by Hamilcar Barcas, who reluctantly signed the conditions to which the distress of the republic compelled him to accede. The Carthaginians agreed to surrender all their possessions in Sicily, pay an annual tribute to Rome, and evacuate all the small islands adjacent to Italy and Sicily. Hamilcar returned to Carthage with an inveterate hatred for the Romans, which he did not suffer even to die with him: he bound his son, the illustrious Hannibal, by the most solemn oath never to be in friendship with the Romans—a vow which he faithfully performed.

(B. C. 241.) Carthage had no sooner concluded this treaty, than this republic was engaged in another war,

* Machines, which placed upon the Roman vessels, lifted up, or, by their weight, pressed down and sank the Carthaginian ships.

which was marked by every excess of the most dreadful cruelty. The mercenaries, in whom, unfortunately, consisted the chief strength of the army, had been disbanded, but, on account of the exhausted state of the treasury, had not been paid for their services. These soldiers immediately chose two leaders, Spendius and Mathos, and keeping Carthage in a manner blockaded, invited the chief of Africa to assist in asserting their freedom. All soon joined in the rebellion, except Utica and Hippo Diarrhytus, which continued their allegiance to Carthage. This sanguinary and intestine war was terminated chiefly through the conduct of Hamilcar Barca, who surrounded and cut in pieces upwards of forty thousand of these unfortunate wretches, and caused Spendius and the other prisoners to be crucified.

The peace between Rome and Carthage continued twenty-three years, during which the latter power was recruiting her strength, and meditating on the means of avenging her losses and disgrace. Hamilcar sought soldiers in Spain, and, after nine years' war, was killed in battle at a time when he was surrounded by men, whom his merits had attached to him, and who were sufficient to commence hostilities with the Romans. He was succeeded by his son-in-law Asdrubal, after whose death, the youth, the graces, and the talents of Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, endeared him to the troops, who set him at the head.

(B. C. 219.) Hannibal commenced the second Punic war with the siege of Saguntum, a city of Spain, in alliance with the Romans, which was situated in the middle of the Carthaginian possessions in that country, which, after a long and bloody siege, was taken and razed to the ground. Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. Having, therefore, united himself by treaties with the princes of Spain, and incorporated into his army many of their soldiers and leaders, he became a kind of hostage for their countrymen, he opened his way over the Pyrenees, from the banks of the Ebro to the borders of the Rhone, and thence marched his troops across the Alps, upon which he lost a great number of men.

The soldiers who were killed in the battles which Hannibal fought, were soon replaced by those whom the fruits of his success brought to his standard. Thus, after

battle of Trebia, which was so advantageous to this general, he was able to acquire glory at Thrasymene, and secure victory at Cannæ. But the Romans, taught by misfortune, confined themselves to defensive war, cutting off his provisions, and intercepting his contributions. Hannibal, however, maintained himself sixteen years in Italy, and often disconcerted the best-laid plans of his enemies. In the mean time, Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia, were torn from the republic; and reiterated orders, and the imminent danger of Carthage, alone induced Hannibal to return to Africa, where he was conquered in the field of Zama by Scipio, surnamed Africanus. Carthage thus subdued, was disarmed by the Romans, who burnt the fleet of this republic, and taxed it with the levy of considerable sums. Thus ended the second Punic war (B. C. 196).

After the termination of the second Punic war, Hannibal was placed as suffete at the head of the republic, and in this station exhibited talents for government equal to those which he had displayed in commanding armies. However, the unrelenting hatred of the Romans obliged this great and remarkable man to fly from city to city, and from country to country, till at length, at the age of seventy years, he swallowed poison to avoid falling into their hands.

The Roman senate, jealous and uneasy at seeing the weakened republic of Carthage resume some vigour, determined on its total destruction, and, after raising an immense army by sea and land, demanded three hundred young men of the best families for hostages. The Carthaginians complied with this requisition, and sent the unfortunate victims to Lilybæum. The consuls, who were also commanders of the army, then demanded the delivery of all their galleys with three rows of oars, and of their warlike machines, and that they should bring all their arms to the Roman camp. To these conditions they submitted with affliction and regret. Thus despoiled, and incapable of defending themselves, the Carthaginians were next required to abandon their city, and build another at a distance from the sea, and without walls or fortifications.

(B. C. 149.) When the mournful news reached Carthage, the most dreadful consternation arose. Rage and anger succeeded to despair; and all swore to die, rather

than to submit to such iniquitous conditions. From this resolution proceeded a war of two years' duration. The Carthaginians performed every thing which men so reduced could perform. After contending with the Romans from street to street, they threw themselves into the citadel, which the defenders themselves set on fire, and perished in the flames (B. C. 146). Thus fell the first Carthage, about seven hundred and fifty years after its foundation. It was afterwards rebuilt by the Romans, and in the reign of Augustus, was the second city of the empire. It was reduced to ashes by Maxentius, but held a considerable rank among the cities of Africa under Genseric, king of the Vandals. Near the close of the seventh century of the Christian era, it was totally destroyed by the Saracens, and not a vestige of it remains.

Questions on the History of Carthage.

When was Carthage founded, and by whom? What of this city remains, and under what lies the once omnipotent Carthage?

At one time what did the Carthaginians possess? What was their immediate territory round them, and what was the town of Tunis? Which was reckoned next to the capital, and which next to it? Where were the cities situated? what was the object of their attention? and what was the fertility of the country?

What was the government of Carthage, and of what consisted the republic? Who were the suffetes, and from whom elected? On what depended the election of a senator, and what was the power of the senate? What says Polybius? What other tribunals were there, and what were their offices?

What detestable custom prevailed at Carthage, and how were the children esteemed? How many did the Carthaginians sometimes bury at once, and what gods did they adore?

Who only were allowed to be messengers of calamity, and for what were criminals reserved? When were the walls hung with black? What was forbidden to the soldiers and to the magistrates? What number of rings wore each officer and soldier, and what awaited a general after an unsuccessful expedition? How did they excite hospitality? What were the Carthaginians accused by the Romans, and what were the prejudices of the latter against the former? Were they prone to rebellion, and what was the character of their nobles? Were there among them men of the greatest generosity and of the most heroic bravery?

With what did the Carthaginians supply other nations, and what was their chief manufacture? What did they procure from Egypt, from the coasts of the Red Sea, and from Tyre and Phœnicia? What did they bring from the Western coasts? What was their trade with the Persians, Garamantes, and Ethiopians, and how was this kind of commerce regulated?

What method of trading had the Carthaginians with the Lybians?

and of what was it a convincing proof? Did either of them ever attempt to take improper advantages, and what does this conduct claim?

Of what origin was the Punic language, and of what were the written characters of the Carthaginians composed? Did the Carthaginians encourage the sciences? By whom, and for what reason, were the archives of this people destroyed? Were the Carthaginians superstitious, and how were they characterized by the Romans?

What cities did the Carthaginians build in Spain, and where had they establishments? What did they explore under Himilco, and what under Hanno? What troops did they employ against the neighbouring nations, and where levy them?

How much ground did Dido demand, and what extent of territory encircle? What did the new city soon become, and what was the fate of Dido?

Were the Carthaginians successful against Sardinia, and how did they treat their general Machæus, and the remaining portion of the army? Did Machæus oblige Carthage to surrender?

What was the success of the armament under Hamilcar sent against Sicily, and what of that under Hannibal?

What was the success of another powerful armament, and who laid siege to Carthage? On what conditions did the Syracusans conclude a peace with the Carthaginians?

In expectation of what was the first Punic war commenced by the Romans, and what was the ostensible cause? What did the Romans secure to themselves, and whither did they carry the war? How did they remain in Sicily, and on what conditions was a peace concluded with the Romans by Hamilcar Barca? With what hatred did Hamilcar return to Carthage, and to what did he bind his son Hannibal?

In what other war was Carthage immediately engaged, and whom did the mercenaries choose for their leaders? What cities joined in the rebellion, and by whom was this intestine war terminated?

How long continued the peace between Rome and Carthage, and where was Hamilcar killed? By whom was he succeeded, and what endeared Hannibal to the troops?

With what did Hannibal commence the second Punic war, and what bold design did he form? Where did he open his way from the banks of the Ebro to the borders of the Rhone, and whither did he then march his troops?

By whom were Hannibal's soldiers killed in battle replaced, and to what did the Romans confine themselves? How long did Hannibal maintain himself in Italy, and what induced him to return to Africa? Where and by whom was Hannibal conquered, and when and how ended the second Punic war?

Where was Hannibal placed as siffete, and what was the end of this great and remarkable man?

On what did the Roman senate determine, and what did they demand from the Carthaginians? What did the consuls then demand, and what were the Carthaginians afterwards required?

What consternation arose in Carthage, and to what did the Carthaginians bind themselves? What did they perform, and how did they perish? When fell the first Carthage, and was it afterwards rebuilt by the Romans? By whom was it reduced to ashes, and when was it totally destroyed?

NUMIDIA.

NUMIDIA comprehended Numidia Propria, or the country of the Massyli, and Mauritania Cæsariensis, or that of the Massæsyli. It was bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the river Tusca on the east; by Gætulia on the south; and by the river Mulucha, which separated it from Mauritania, on the west. The first inhabitants of this country are supposed to have been the descendants of Phut, the brother of Mizraim; but some colonies of Phœnicians were planted among them in the earliest ages. The principal objects of their adoration were the sun and moon; and divine honours were occasionally paid to the gods of Greece and Phœnicia. It is probable, that the inhabitants of the coast adopted the same form of government as Carthage, while those in the interior lived beneath an absolute monarchy. Their language was certainly distinct from that of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians.

It is probable, that Jarbas reigned in Numidia, as well as in Africa Propria, when Dido laid the foundation of Byrsa. Gala, king of a division of Numidia, dying while his son Masinissa was receiving instructions in war from the Carthaginians in Spain, was succeeded by his brother Desalces, who transmitted the crown to his son Capus. Mezetulus, a relation, deprived him of his life and his throne, and, marrying the widow of Desalces, endeavoured to cover and secure his usurpation; whilst at the same time, he strengthened himself with the forces of Syphax, king of another part of Numidia. Masinissa informed of this usurpation, quitted Spain, and gathering round him the veteran troops of his father, defeated Mezetulus, and ascended the throne. But the Carthaginians dreading his abilities, excited against him the jealousy of Syphax, who, attacking the Massylians with resistless fury, dispersed their forces, and expelled Masinissa from the throne. In this exigence, Masinissa fortified himself in a spot, which he maintained for a long time; but at length, he was compelled to flee, and seek refuge in a cave, where he was supported by two horsemen who accompanied him. Masinissa regained the throne, from which Syphax once more displaced him; but he was finally restored to his kingdom by the Romans, who assisted him in recovering his beloved Sophonisba.

On the death of Masinissa, the Romans divided the government among his three legitimate sons, Micipsa, Gulussa, and Mastanabal. Gulussa and Mastanabal died, and the latter having left a son named Jugurtha, Micipsa brought him up in the royal palace, with his own children, Adherbal and Hiempsal. Jugurtha was remarkably handsome, and endued with great bodily strength, and the finest mental abilities. Though he excelled in all things, he spoke very little of himself; and yet, with these attractive qualities, he was a monster of cruelty, ingratitude, and deceit.

By his will, Micipsa declared him heir to the crown conjointly with his two sons Hiempsal and Adherbal, whom he recommended to him with his dying breath. His uncle, however, had no sooner expired, than Jugurtha caused his cousin Hiempsal to be assassinated, and Adherbal was obliged to flee to Rome, where he implored protection for himself, and vengeance against the murderer of his brother. Jugurtha made use of money for his justification; and his success emboldened him to take from his cousin the small remaining part of the kingdom, and put him to death. This tragical event roused the indignation of the Romans, who sent two bodies of troops against the murderer (B. C. 110); but Jugurtha appeased them with gold, and appeared at Rome, where he dared even to assassinate Massiva, the son of Hiempsal. He was, however, delivered up to the Romans by Bocchus, king of Mauritania, and, being fastened to the car of Marius, exhibited his ignominy to that same Rome, which had been so often an accomplice in his meanness.

Numidia having taken part in the quarrel between Cæsar and Pompey, on the defeat of the latter, it was reduced to a Roman province.

Questions on the History of Numidia.

What did Numidia comprehend, and by what was it bounded? Who were the first inhabitants of this country, and what were the objects of their adoration? What was their form of government, and what was their language?

Who reigned in Numidia when Dido laid the foundation of Byrsa? By whom were Gala and Desalces succeeded, and by whom was Capusa deprived of his life and his throne? Who defeated Mezetulus and ascended the throne, and by whom was Masinissa expelled? Whither fled Masinissa, and by whom was he finally restored to his kingdom?

On the death of Massinissa, among whom did the Romans divide the government, and by whom was Jugurtha brought up? What were the bodily and mental abilities of Jugurtha, and what was his character?

Whom did Micipsa declare heir to his crown, and whom did Jugurtha cause to be assassinated and whither fled Adherbal? What did Jugurtha make use of for his justification, and what was the fate of Adherbal? With what did Jugurtha appease the Romans, and whom did he assassinate at Rome? To whom was he delivered up, and what did he exhibit to Rome?

When was Numidia reduced to a Roman province?

MAURITANIA.

MAURITANIA, which was so called from the Mauri, an ancient people, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by the river Mulucha on the east; by Gætulia on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. Fez, Morocco, Tangier, and Sallee, indicate the position of Mauritania. It was famed for a luxuriant produce of grapes, apples, and other hortulan fruits; and the islands on this coast were so highly esteemed, on account of their happy climate, fertile soil, and salubrious air, that the ancients called them "Fortunate," and here fixed their Elysian Fields.

The Mauritaniens were the descendants of Phul, the son of Ham; but the Phœnicians planted colonies among them in very early ages. Their government seems to have always been monarchical. Atlas, the first king of Mauritania, is said to have cultivated the sciences. Juba, the last sovereign except one, received his education at Rome, and was remarkably well acquainted with the Assyrian, Arabic, Greek, Punic, African, and Latin histories, and wrote some excellent treatises on grammar, painting, natural history, &c., some fragments of which are still extant. His government so effectually conciliated the esteem of his subjects, that they erected a statue to his memory. The Romans divided this country into two provinces, Mauritania Tingitana and Mauritania Cæsariensis.

Questions on the History of Mauritania.

From whom was Mauritania denominated, and how was it bounded? What indicate the position of Mauritania? For what was it famed, and how were the islands on this coast esteemed?

Of whom were the Mauritanians descendants, and what was their government? What did Atlas cultivate, and what were the qualifications of Juba? Why did his subjects erect a statue to the memory of Juba? Into what did the Romans divide this country?

GÆTULIANS, MELANOGÆTULIANS, OR NIGRITÆ, AND GARAMANTES.

HISTORY has preserved little respecting these nations besides their names; and even the boundaries of Gætulia have never been satisfactorily defined by geographers. Their wandering hordes, which were sometimes united, and sometimes scattered, extended from Numidia and Mauritania, more or less, towards the deserts.

Questions on the History of the Gætulians, Melanogætulians, or Nigritæ, and Garamantes.

Of these nations what has history preserved, and have the boundaries of Gætulia been defined? Whither extended their wandering hordes?

MARMARICA

MARMARICA was bounded on the east and west by Egypt and Cyrenaica; on the south by the desert of Sahara; and on the north by the Mediterranean. The principal Libyan nations inhabiting this region, were the Adyrmachidæ and the Ammonii. The former were situated near the Canopic mouth of the Nile; and the latter, who derived their name from Jupiter Ammon, lay nearer Cyrenaica, and about ten days' journey from Thebes, in Egypt.

Questions on the History of Marmarica.

By what was Marmarica bounded, and who were the principal nations? Where were the Adyrmachidæ situated, and where the Ammonii?

CYRENAICA.

THIS tract of territory was bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the east by Marmarica; on the south, by the desert of Sahara; and on the west by the Regio

Syrtica. The soil, in general, was barren, and the air insalubrious; but some parts were tolerably fertile, and produced roses, violets, and other flowers of peculiar fragrantcy. The principal nations who inhabited or bordered on this region, were the Barcæi, the Psylli, and the Nasamones.

Questions on the History of Cyrenaica.

How was this tract of territory bounded, and what was the nature of the soil? Who were the principal nations?

THE REGIO SYRTICA.

THE Regio Syrtica, which derived its name from the two Syrtes on its eastern and western part, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north; by Cyrenaica on the east; by the Sahara on the south; and by Africa Propria on the west. The soil, in general, was extremely barren; but some places were tolerably productive of corn, fruit, and oil. The principal nations inhabiting this region, were the Gindanes, Cinethii, Macæ, and Lotophagi, the last of whom derived their name from their subsisting chiefly on the fruit of the lotus, a kind of reed, which some suppose to be the sugar-cane.

Questions on the History of the Regio Syrtica.

From what did Regio Syrtica derive its name, and how was it bounded? What was the nature of the soil, and who were the principal nations?

ÆTHIOPIA.

ÆTHIOPIA Propria was bounded on the north by Egypt; on the east by the Red Sea; on the south, by an unknown part of Africa; and on the west by Libya Interior. The face of the country is diversified with mountains and vallies; and the soil, when properly cultivated, yields exuberant crops of grain, pulse, and other vegetable productions. The climate, in general, is healthy; but some parts are rendered equally unpleasant and insalubrious by the intolerable heat, a stagnant atmosphere, or tremendous

whirlwinds, which raise the sand in spiral volumes to the sky, and level or overwhelm all before them.

In point of antiquity, the Æthiopians might claim a superiority even over the Egyptians, since their progenitor, Cush, was the eldest son of Ham; and they might be esteemed of equal antiquity with the Arabians, as the Cushites migrated, from the kingdom of Midian, both into the southern parts of the peninsula of the Arabs and Æthiopia. Many of the customs, laws, and sciences of the Æthiopians were similar to those of the Egyptians.

It is said that the Troglodytes, concealed in caves, fed on serpents, lizards, and other reptiles; that in Nubia were pigmies; and that ostriches, the size of the stag, were the animals of chase of the Abulitæ. Locusts, tortoises, elephants, fish, and the milk of the bitch, formed the food of many nations, who thence obtained their appellations. The Elephantophagi dwelt in the branches of trees, whence they descended to chase the lion, the leopard, and the elephant. Happy were those who found more fertile soils, which spontaneously produced fruits, roots, succulent and other plants. It is even said, that Æthiopia contained Anthropophagi. Their usual beverage was a kind of beer.

That there were cities in this country is sufficiently attested by the magnificent ruins which still exist. In the midst of immense plains rise, not mountains, but rocks higher and more irregular than the Alps or Pyrenees, some of which resemble towers, and others pyramids, whose sides are so smooth, that they appear to be the result of art, and yet whose summits are covered with woods and meadows, where fountains and even lakes are found. One of these rocks seems like a castle built of hewn stone; and the platform upon its top is four leagues in circumference. Provisions, and even animals, are drawn up thither by cords. It was used as a state prison; and here were placed the princes of the blood royal, to whom nothing more was allowed than what was necessary to prevent them from perishing by hunger.

It is well known that detachments of Arabs gradually increased the population of Æthiopia; but their mixture has not altered the indigenous race, of whose origin we are ignorant. The government seems to have been always monarchical, but something under the sway of women, who were distinguished by the name of Candace, as

the kings of Egypt had that of Pharaoh. In other respects, its kingdoms were sometimes consolidated into one, and sometimes divided into many. In some the monarchy was hereditary, and in others elective, or attached to the priesthood; in some restrained by laws, and in others despotic. With respect to religion, nothing certain can be said; but it appears that the gods of Egypt and Greece were worshipped in Æthiopia. It is certain, however, that idolatry was not universal, but that the court and higher orders professed theism, and observed the Jewish customs. The Æthiopians had a great variety of dialects, and a distinct language and letters, which are still preserved, and in which were written their public acts and sacred books.

In a country of such extent, during a long continuance of ages, it is not possible that their customs could be uniform. Those who were condemned to suffer death, were obliged to be their own executioners, and their flight was punished by the dishonour of their families; and, in such a case, the mother killed her son. The sister's son succeeded to the throne. If the king was lame, all his attendants were obliged to lame themselves; and the monarch was under the necessity of putting himself to death, when the priests informed him, that the gods had so ordered it for the good of his subjects. On his death, all his servants killed themselves, either to shew their attachment to their prince, or to be ready to serve him in the other world. When the royal family became extinct, some nations chose their sovereigns from the shepherds.

The lethyophagi made a paste of putrid fish, which seems to have been agreeable to their palate. They lived to a great age, and exposed on the sea-shore their dead, which were carried away by the tide, and devoured by fish, on which they fed. Authors appear to portray a republic of monkeys, when they tell us, that the men of one country perch on trees, hopping from branch to branch, possessing their females in common, and fighting each other with clubs; that some drank only every five days, and others not at all. When any one became useless to society from age, infirmity, or some disease, the rest came and entreated him to die: and if he was unwilling to resign himself to his fate, they fastened him by force to the tail of a bull, which thus dragged him till he expired. With them funerals were a day of festivity. Circumcision generally pro-

vailed among them. They covered the bodies of their relations with plaster, on which their likeness was delineated, and then enclosed them in coffins of great value, and some even in boxes of crystal, through which the features of the deceased might be seen. They always preserved a corpse at least a year in their houses. After noticing so many improbabilities and contradictions, it may be necessary to observe, that these are the productions of the Greek writers, who delighted in degrading this people by fabulous stories.

The Æthiopians were naturally hardy, intrepid, violent, generous, frank, and humane; and they readily forgave injuries, and were the zealous partisans of justice. The early history of Æthiopia is enveloped in such clouds of fiction and uncertainty, that little can be said on the subject, with any degree of confidence, till the time of Solomon, to whom the queen of Sheba paid a visit. It is believed that this princess was an Æthiopian, and constant tradition reports that she was the mother of an extended dynasty, descendants of Solomon, who continue to reign in this country. The Æthiopians were among the first people that embraced Christianity, which, though greatly mixed with Judaism, they still profess.

Questions on the History of Æthiopia.

By what was Æthiopia Propria bounded, and what is the nature of the country and of the soil? What is the nature of the climate?

What was the antiquity of the Æthiopians, and what were their customs, laws, and sciences?

What is said of the Troglodytes, of the people of Nubia, and of the Abulim? What formed the food of many nations, and where dwelt the Elephantophagi? Who were happy, and what is Æthiopia said to have contained?

Were there cities in this country, and what are the rocks? What does one of these rocks seem to be like? for what was it used? and who were placed here?

What increased the population of Æthiopia, and what was the form of government? How were the kingdoms divided, and what was the religion? What was the language of the Æthiopians?

What were their customs, and how suffered those who were condemned to death? Who succeeded to the throne, and when did the monarch put himself to death? What did the servants on the king's death, and from whom did some nations choose their sovereign?

What did the Ichthyophagi make, and where expose their dead? When do authors appear to portray a republic of monks, and what was done to any one who became useless to society? What were funerals, and did they use circumcision? In what did they enclose the bodies of

their relations, and how long did they preserve a corpse? What are these productions, and in what did the Greek writers delight?

What was the character of the Æthiopians, and in what is the early history of Æthiopia enveloped? Was the queen of Sheba an Æthiopian, and what does tradition report? When did the Æthiopians embrace Christianity, and is it still professed?

ARABIA.

ARABIA, taken in its largest extent, is situated between the twelfth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude, and the fifty-third and seventy-eighth of longitude. It is bounded by part of Syria, Diyar-Beer, Irak, and Kizilistan, on the north, by the Euphrates, the Persian gulf, and the bay of Ormus, on the east; by the straits of Bab al Mandal and the Indian Ocean, on the south, and by Palestine, the Red Sea, and the isthmus of Suez, on the west.

Ptolemy has divided this extensive peninsula into three parts; Arabia Petrea, Arabia Deserta, and Arabia Felix. Arabia Petrea, though covered with rocks or arid sand, was inhabited in very remote ages, by several nations, of which the Ishmaelites, Nabathæans, Kedareni, and Hagareni, were the most considerable. Arabia Deserta was a mere desert, being diversified only by arid plains of sand, rocky mountains, and a few fertile spots, which resembled little islands surrounded by an extensive ocean; but it was, nevertheless, inhabited by several nations, of whom the principal were the Cauchabeni, Rhaabeni, Æsitæ, Batanei, and Agræi. Arabia Felix was divided into five provinces, in the time of Strabo; and the principal nations situated in this country, in the early ages, were the Sabæi, Gerræi, Minæi, Adramitæ, Ascitæ, Homerites, Sapphoritæ, Omanitæ, Buizomenæ, and Nabathæans.

The Arabs deduce their origin from two stocks; viz. Kahtan, or Joktan, the son of Eber, and Adnan, a lineal descendant of Ishmael. The posterity of the former are denominated Al Arab al Ariba, *genuine Arabs*; and those of the latter, Al Arab al Mostareha, *naturalized Arabs*. Prior to the time of Mahomet, the religion of the Arabs consisted in worshipping the heavenly bodies, and certain inferior deities, which they called Al Ilahat, *the goddesses*. They also regarded angels as mediators between men and

the Supreme Being, whom they called Allah Taâla, the Most High God.

The government of the Arabs, like that of the Bedouins, their descendants, was vested in certain shekhs and emirs; of whom the former superintended particular collections of tents called khymas, or villages, and the latter ruled over a whole tribe. Both descriptions of rulers, however, acknowledged the sovereignty of one person, who was distinguished either by the regal title, or, at least, by that of grand emir, and who maintained the Arabs in their particular customs, laws, and privileges.

Of their language the learned and accurate Sir William Jones has given the following interesting account: "As the Arabic language is unquestionably one of the most ancient in the world, so it yields to none ever spoken by mortals in the number of its words, and the position of its phrases: but it is equally true and wonderful, that it bears not the least resemblance, either in words, or the structure of them, to the Sanscrit, or great parent of Indian dialects; of which dissimilarity two remarkable instances may be given: the Sanscrit, like the Greek, Persian, and German, delights in compounds, but in a much higher degree; while the Arabic, and all its sister dialects, abhor the composition of words, and invariably express very complex ideas by circumlocution: so that if a compound word be found in any genuine language of the Arabian peninsula, it may at once be pronounced an exotic. Again: it is the genius of the Sanscrit, and other languages of the same stock, that the roots of verbs be almost universally bilateral; so that five-and-twenty hundred such roots might be formed by the composition of the fifty Indian letters: but the Arabic roots are as universally triliteral; so that the composition of the twenty-eight Arabian letters would give nearly two-and-twenty thousand elements of the language. Of the characters in which the old compositions of Arabia were written we know but little, except that the Koran originally appeared in those of Cufah; from which the modern Arabian letters, with all their elegant variations, were derived, and which unquestionably had a common origin with the Hebrew or Chaldaic*."

* Vide Asiatic Researches, vol. II. page 5.

Questions on the History of Arabia

Where is Arabia situated, and by what bounded?

Into what parts has Ptolemy divided this extensive peninsula? What was the nature of Arabia Petraea, and by whom inhabited? What is Arabia Deserta, and by whom inhabited? Into what provinces is Arabia Felix divided, and what were its principal nations?

From whom do the Arabs deduce their origin? What are the names of Kahtan or Joktan called, and what those of Adnan? What is the religion of the Arabs, and how did they regard angels?

In whom was the government of the Arabs vested, and of whom do both descriptions of rulers acknowledge the sovereignty?

What is the account which Sir William Jones has given of their language?

EMPIRES OF NICE AND TRAPEZOND

Nice.—Theodore Lascaris having fled from the persecution of his tyrannical father-in-law (A. D. 1204), to Bithynia, was received with the warmest demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants, by whose assistance he was enabled to render himself master of Phrygia, Mysia, Lydia, and Ionia, from the Mæander to the Euxine Sea. These provinces he erected into a new empire, called the empire of Nice, from the famous city which he made his impregnable residence; and, by his extraordinary valour and conduct, he secured these important acquisitions to himself and his successors. He was succeeded by his son-in-law John Ducas (A. D. 1222), who was equally brave and successful with his celebrated predecessor. He extended his empire not only in Asia, but also in Europe, and almost to the gates of Constantinople, and achieved many brilliant victories over the Turks and Latins.

(A. D. 1225.) He was succeeded by Theodore Lascaris, who, during his short reign, was attended with great success against the despot of Epirus and the Bulgarians, but who acted imprudently in recalling the traitor Michael Palæologus, and restoring him to his former dignity. He left the empire to his son, under the guardianship of Arsenius, the patriarch of Nice, and one Muzalo, a person of mean extraction, but of consummate merit, and approved fidelity. On the demise of Theodore, the Nicean nobility procured the assassination of Muzalo during the celebration of the deceased monarch's funeral obsequies; and Palæologus caused himself to be chosen guardian of the young emperor, and to be declared protector of the em-

pire, without any regard to Arsenius, whose merit and integrity were inimical to the designs of the usurper. At length, on his taking Constantinople from the Latins, Palæologus ordered the eyes of the unfortunate prince to be put out, removed the seat of empire to Constantinople, and caused himself to be solemnly crowned emperor of the East. Thus ended the Nicean empire, about fifty-seven years after its foundation.

TRAPEZOND.—Soon after the reduction of Constantinople by the Latins, Alexius Comnenus, surnamed the Great, and his brother David, seized on the provinces of Colchis, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and Cappadocia, with several cities of note, and fixed the imperial residence at Trapezond. John Comnenus, supposed to have been the first that assumed the title of emperor, was confirmed in his dignities by Michael Palæologus, who invited him to Constantinople, and gave him his daughter, Eudocia, in marriage.

Trapezond, assaulted by the Greeks, Latins, Turks, Saracens, and Persians, and more immediately by the emperors of Nice, sometimes collectively, and sometimes separately, struggled so bravely against their attempts, as to make us regret that there remain only hints of the exploits of this little empire, without any circumstantial detail. Scarcely any thing is remarkable except its last catastrophe. Mohammed II., surnamed the Great, declared war against David Comnenus; invested his metropolis by sea and land; and led both David and all his family in triumph to Constantinople, whence they were removed to Adrianople, and inhumanly massacred, except the youngest son, who embraced the faith of Mahomet, and one of his sisters, who became the victor's concubine. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the Trapezontine empire, in the year of Christ 1462, and in the two hundred and fifty-eighth year of its foundation.

Questions on the History of the Empires of Nice and Trapezond.

Nice.—Of what, and by whose assistance, was Theodores Lascaris enabled to render himself master, and into what did he erect these provinces? By whom was he succeeded, what was his character, and whither did John Ducas extend his empire?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was the success of Theodores Lascaris? To whom did he leave the empire, and under whose gov-

quanship? What was the fate of Mozaio, and what did Michael Palæologus cause himself to be declared? On the taking of Constantinople from the Latins, what did Palæologus order to be done to the young prince, and whither did he remove the seat of empire? When ended the Nicæan empire?

Trapezond.—On what provinces did Alexius Comnenus and his brother David seize, and where fix the imperial residence? Who was the one that assumed the title of emperor, and by whom was John Comnenus confirmed in his dignities?

How did Trapezond struggle against its enemies, and was its last catastrophe remarkable? What did Mohammed the Second do to David Comnenus and his family and when took place the melancholy catastrophe of the Trapezontine empire?

INDIA.

INDIA, which is situated between Persia, the Indian Sea, Chinese Tartary, and Great Tartary, is the finest, the most fruitful, and the richest country in the world: every thing valuable and agreeable, of which other regions can boast, is to be found within its boundaries. It abounds in rice, and a wonderful variety of delicious fruits, and possesses every necessary of life. In its seas are found pearls; in its mines, diamonds: and in its mountains, metals. Its fields and forests abound with various animals, some of which seem born for independence, and others have been domesticated, and among these are elephants, wonderful for their sagacity and courage, and more strong than those of Africa. Two great rivers, the Ganges and the Indus, wash the borders, and fix the boundaries, of this delightful country.

This region was peopled by inhabitants from Persia and Tartary, who gradually established those nations, of which ancient historians have preserved the names, and marked the positions. The colonies of India mixed and became kingdoms and empires; and even the devastations of conquerors sometimes unintentionally united different tribes. Ancient writers inform us, that in India is a vast extent of country, containing many towns and a thousand villages, deserted by the inhabitants, who left their mansions standing; but modern historians make no mention of this desert, and the ancient have not indicated its position.

The Indians had excellent laws and regulations, and some laudable customs, of which a general sketch follows. At the commencement of the year, the philoso-

phers, who formed a distinct sect, were obliged to attend the king in his palace, and offer him their observations, predictions, and conjectures, on all things useful to their country; but if, in these remarks, any one was convicted of ignorance, perpetual silence was imposed on him as a punishment. The soldiers possessed fixed habitations, and a regulated pay in times of peace. One fourth of the produce of the land was assigned to the king and the state. In order to check ambition, the usual source of corruption, the magistrates, who were charged with the distribution of justice, were prohibited from marrying into any family of greater rank than their own. If the wife of a drunken monarch killed him, she was obliged to marry his successor. During the day, the king was not allowed to sleep. In many places, the women did not survive their husbands, but burnt themselves with his corpse.

We have heard much of the Indian philosophers, the gymnosophists, and bramins. The latter appear to have been of one family, who called themselves descendants of Abraham, and whose theology, though it might vary in the end, was always founded on the unity of God. They were at once priests and counsellors to the king; being charged with the performance of religious ceremonies, the instruction of the public, and the interpretation of the laws. They applied with success to the study of mathematics, physic, and astronomy, which, like most other nations, they disgraced by a mixture of judicial astrology. They worshipped the gods of the Greeks and the Egyptians; and many of their philosophers adopted the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls. Some of them believed the world to be governed by a Supreme Being, extended through all space, and imagined the planets to be guided by inferior intelligences; and they adopted also the opinions of the immortality of the soul, and of a future state of rewards and punishments. Of the ancient language or letters of India no traces remain. The characters which the bramins use at present have an affinity to the Hebrew and Syriac. Though the reputation of these philosophers is greatly decayed, yet they still maintain some influence over the people.

We are indebted to this rich country for our silk, the trade in which was long monopolized by the Persians; and, therefore, for many ages it was sold for its weight in gold.

Justinian sent two monks to a part of India called Serica, where the worm from which it is produced was found; but, being unable to bring away the valuable insect alive, they conveyed and preserved some eggs, which were afterwards hatched, and from which have proceeded all the silkworms in Europe.

Questions on the History of India.

Where is India situated, and what is the nature of the country? In what does it abound, and what rivers fix the boundaries of this delightful country?

By whom was this region peopled, and what did the colonies of India become? Of what have ancient writers informed us, of which modern historians make no mention?

What laws and regulations had the Indians? At the commencement of the year, what did the philosophers offer the king? How were the soldiers provided for, and what was assigned for the king and the state? From what were the magistrates prohibited, and did the women serve their husbands?

Of whom have we heard much, and who were the bramins? What was their theology, and with the performance of what were they charged? To what study did they apply with success? What gods did they worship, and what did many of their philosophers adopt? What did some of them believe respecting the world, and what opinions did they adopt regarding the soul and a future state? What was the ancient language, and what are the characters used at present? What is the reputation of these philosophers?

To what country are we indebted for our silk, and what effected the monks whom Justinian sent to a part of India called Serica?

TURKS, TARTARS, AND MOGULS.

SOME historians say, that the Tartars were anciently called Tatars from their great ancestor Tatar Khân; but their own writers deduce their origin from Turk, the elder son of Japhet; and, therefore they suppose their extraction more noble than that of the neighbouring people, whom they consider as descended from the younger branches of their progenitor's family. In consequence of this opinion they assert, that they bore the appellation of Turks till the time of Jenghis Khân, when it was gradually disused, and finally changed into that of Tartars by their neighbours, though they have always denominated themselves Turks, and it is said that no other nation has the least title to that appellation.

The Moguls received their name from Mogul,

Mung'l, brother to Tatar Khân; so that they, as well as the Tartars, were also descended from the family of Japhet.

It is probable, that the government of the ancient Tartars was the same as that of the Scythians. Alanza Khân had twin sons, Tatar and Mogul, between whom he divided his dominions. The royal families founded by these two Khâns governed the ancient Turks, Tartars, and Moguls, for several generations, and, at length, formed a powerful and an extensive empire.

Their religion was the grossest idolatry; and they worshipped Zamolxis, Hercules, and other imaginary deities, and carried about with them, in covered waggons, those small images which the ancient Germans regarded as objects of adoration. There was a great affinity between the ancient Turkish, Tartarian, and Gothic languages, all of which might be deduced from the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic tongues. It has been disputed, whether the ancient Tartars had among them any alphabetic characters.

Questions on the History of the Turks, Tartars, and Moguls.

From whom do the Tartars derive their origin, and till what time do they say that they bore the appellation of Turks? From whom did the Moguls receive their name, and were they also descended from the family of Japhet?

What was the government of the ancient Tartars, and between whom did Alanza Khân divided his dominions? What did the royal families founded by these two Khâns at length form?

What was their religion, and what gods did they worship? Was there any affinity between the ancient Turkish, Tartarian, and Gothic languages, and had the ancient Tartars any alphabet?

CHINA.

THE Chinese, like the Egyptians, and many other nations, assume to themselves too high an antiquity, and absurdly fix the reign of the first emperor, Fo-hi, near three thousand years before the commencement of the Christian era. The learned Sir William Jones has rendered it highly probable, that the Chinese and the Hindoos were anciently the same people, and that the existing differences between them has been produced by the latter

having preserved their old language, ritual, and family alliances, while the former have accepted of a new religion and by a mixture of Tartarian blood, formed a race apparently distinct both from the Hindoos and the Tartars.

The form of government anciently prevailing in this country was monarchical. Confucius and his followers professed a firm belief in the Supreme God, and demonstrated his existence and his providence from the exquisite beauty of the celestial bodies, and the wonderful order of nature in the whole fabric of the visible world. They taught, that he who shall be fully persuaded that the Lord of Heaven governs the universe, who shall in all things choose moderation, who shall perfectly know his own species, and shall conform his life and manners to his knowledge of God and man, may be truly said to be exalted above the generality of the human race*. It appears, however, from credible authority, that the Chinese believed in the agency of tutelary spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, and cities, and particularly over fire, the most brilliant of the elements, and that they addressed their vows and homage to the visible material heaven, or, at least, to a celestial virtue inseparable from heaven.

The Chinese princes are said to have invented every art which tended to civilize or improve the mind of man; and their merchants are described as being better versed in the arts of commerce, navigation, &c., than other nations; but the fallacy of these pretences has been clearly demonstrated from their general ignorance when first visited by the Jesuits, as well as from the figure they at present make in the republic of letters.

Fo-hut, the celebrated founder of the Chinese empire, was raised to the throne on account of his superior merit, and honoured with the epithet *Tyen-tse, the Son of Heaven*, to denote that he was more favoured by the Supreme Being than the rest of mankind. He is described as an equitable prince, a famous legislator, and a profound mathematician. He is said to have instituted marriage; to have obliged the men and women to wear different habits; to have bred, in a park, six sorts of domestic animals for religious sacrifices;

* Asiatic Researches, vol. II. page 376

† It is fabled, that his mother, walking on the brink of a lake, saw the print of a man's foot in the sand, and, being surrounded by a rainbow, she became impregnated, and, in due time, was delivered of Fo-hut.

to have invented eight *qua*, or symbols, consisting of three lines each, which serve for expressing any occurrence; and to have chosen a dragon, or dragon horse, to be his assistant—whence the figure of a dragon was always borne on the imperial banners. He established a prime minister; divided the government of his empire among four mandarins; and died, after a very long reign, universally regretted by his subjects.

Shin-nong, the successor of Fo-hi, encouraged agriculture; studied the properties of plants, which he applied to medicine; established markets, and was a very religious prince. Whang-ti spoke as soon as he was born, and from his infancy exhibited marks of genius. This prince is said to have taught the art of extracting salt from sea-water, of making geographic charts, and of forming roads by leveling and piercing through mountains. He perfected the science of calculation; regulated weights and measures; struck the first money; constructed oared vessels and chariots; first armed his warriors with bows and arrows, and by the sound of drums and trumpets, inspired them with martial ardour. He framed the flute, and composed the organ; first observed the alterations of the pulse, and applied that knowledge to the sick; and, from the colours of flowers and birds, invented the art of dyeing.

Succeeding princes had only to perfect the discoveries of Whang-ti. It is observable, that the art of war, on which is founded the reputation of other monarchs, forms no part of the praises of those of China, whom history reckons more or less estimable in proportion as they were useful to their people. The attention of these princes has been directed to every thing worthy of notice; and all under their government were subject to wise and salutary laws.

Questions on the History of China.

What antiquity do the Chinese assume? Has Sir William Jones rendered it highly probable that the Chinese and the Hindoos were anciently the same people, and how does he account for the existing differences between them?

What was the form of government? What did Confucius and his followers profess and teach? Did the Chinese believe in the agency of tutelary spirits, and did they address the visible material heaven?

What are the Chinese princes said to have invented, and how are their merchants described? From what has the fallacy of these pretences been clearly demonstrated?

What is fabled of Fo-hi, on what account was he raised to the throne, and with what epithet honoured? How is he described, and what is he said to have instituted and invented, and what to have chosen as his assistant? What did he establish and appoint, and when did he die?

What were the actions and character of Shu-nong? Of what do Whang ti exhibit marks, and what did he teach? On what arts and sciences did he employ himself?

What had succeeding princes to do? How are the monarchs of China reckoned estimable, and to what has their attention been directed?

SPAIN.

THE country anciently distinguished by the name of Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania, and now generally known by the appellation of Spain, was situated between ten and three degrees of east longitude, and between forty-four and forty six degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by the Pyrenean mountains, on the east by the Mediterranean, on the south by the straits of Gibraltar, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean.

It seems probable, that the Spaniards were descended from Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet, whose posterity peopled Europe, at least as far as the Danube and the Rhine. It may, therefore, be rationally supposed, that they were originally instructed in the worship of the true God, and probably adhered for a long series of years to the practices of the ancient patriarchs; but that, as their country was afterwards invaded by the Egyptians, Tyrians, Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and other nations, a strange diversity of religious opinions and ceremonies was gradually introduced among them. However, after the invasion of the Romans, a considerable change was effected in the system of their religion, and under the reign of Ariamirus, king of the Sueves, they embraced the faith of the gospel.

The government of the Spaniards, from their first settling in Europe, was probably monarchical; but as they increased in numbers, and augmented their territories, they divided themselves into a multiplicity of petty kingdoms and commonwealths. The original language of the ancient Spaniards was the Celtic.

After the expulsion of the Carthaginians, this country remained under the government of forty-six emperors from Augustus, who completed its subjugation, till Honorius, in whose reign the Romans were expelled by the Vandals.

Alans, and Suevi. Nineteen Gothic kings possessed the throne during the space of two hundred years, from A. D. 369 to A. D. 569. The Suevi reigned in Galicia one hundred and seventy-seven years, from A. D. 408 to A. D. 584. Lastly, the united kingdoms of the Goths and Suevi subsisted one hundred and twenty-seven years, from A. D. 586 to the subversion of the monarchy by the Moors in A. D. 713.

Questions on the History of Spain.

By what names was this country anciently distinguished, where was it situated, and by what bounded?

From whom were the Spaniards descended, and what was their religion? When did they embrace the faith of the gospel?

What was the government, and into what did the people divide themselves? What was the language?

After the expulsion of the Carthaginians, to how many emperors was this country subject? How many Gothic kings possessed the throne? Where and how long reigned the Suevi? and how long subsisted the united kingdoms of the Goths and Suevi?

GAUL.

THE Gauls were the immediate descendants of the Celtes, or the same people under a more modern name. The Romans generally called this country by the name of Celto-Gallia, and distinguished one part of it from another by the appellations of Cisalpina or Citerior, Transalpina or Ulterior, and Subalpina. Afterwards, Julius Cæsar distinguished the whole of this region under the names of Belgia, Aquitania, and Gallia Propria: the last of which was subdivided into Comata, Braccata, and Togata.

When Gaul was first invaded by the Romans, it was divided into a number of small independent states, which differed from each other in their language, institutions, and laws. Most of these states were under an aristocratical form of government; but several were governed by kings, who were always elected, and whose authority was very limited. Some states were so averse to regal government, that death was the punishment of him who aimed at the sovereignty.

The language of the Gauls was the old Celtic or Gome-rian, which is still preserved, at least in a great measure,

in many parts of Europe, particularly in Biscay, Britain, Cornwall, Ireland, the Hebrides, the Highlands of Scotland, and North Wales. They do not appear to have had, originally, any written characters of their own, but, in process of time, adopted the Greek letters, for the purpose of facilitating their commerce, which seems to have been very considerable, both from the veneration which they expressed towards Mercury, as the god of traffic, and from a great number of ancient inscriptions dedicated, by the Gaulish merchants, to their deities.

With respect to their arts, next to the military, which though their especial favourite, was only indifferently cultivated, eloquence was that in which they prided themselves most, and which seemed most natural to them. Their youth were commonly instructed out of those poems which were composed by the bards and druids: heroic verse were either sung or recited on all public occasions; and they represented Mercury, the god of eloquence, with the symbols of Hercules, to show what power that art had over them above all others.

Previously to their subjugation by the Romans, the Gauls erected neither temples nor statues; but they planted spacious groves, which, being open on the top and sides, were deemed more suitable for the worship of an unconfined Being. They chose the oak as a favourite emblem of the Deity; because that tree was always considered with veneration, and many supernatural virtues were attributed to its wood, leaves, fruit, and misletoe. All religious concerns were placed in the hands of their priests, afterwards called druids and bards, who performed sacrifices and all other solemn rites, and instructed youth in philosophy, astronomy, and astrology, and taught the doctrines of the immortality and the transmigration of souls.

After this country had been conquered by Cæsar, the Gauls continued for a considerable time submissive to the Roman government; but being provoked by the rigid exactions of the prefects, they attempted in vain to recover their former liberty. When the Roman empire was overruled by the barbarous nations, Gaul was invaded first by the Goths and Visigoths, then by the Burgundians, and finally by the Franks, a fierce people of Germany.

Questions on the History of Gaul.

Who were the Gauls, and what did the Romans generally call this

country, and how distinguish one part from another? By what names did Julius Cæsar distinguish the whole of this region?

How was Gaul divided when invaded by the Romans, and what was the form of government?

What was the language of the Gauls, and where is it still preserved? What written characters did they use, and was their commerce considerable? What arts did they cultivate, and how does it appear that they prided themselves most in the art of eloquence?

Previously to their subjugation by the Romans, had the Gauls any temples or statues, and why did they choose the oak as an emblem of the Deity? In whose hands were all religious concerns placed?

Did the Gauls continue submissive to the Roman government, and by whom was Gaul successively invaded?

GERMANY.

GERMANY was anciently bounded by the Hercynian forest on the north; by Scythia and Sarmatia on the east; by the Danube on the south; and by the Rhine on the west. Cæsar and Tacitus describe this country as a barren and uncultivated tract, equally dreadful on account of its sterile soil, unwholesome bogs, impervious forests, and inclement winds. The Romans, however, introduced agriculture with tolerable success, and instructed the natives in those useful arts which they had formerly despised.

The Germans were also descended from the Celtes, from whom they received their religion, laws, and customs. They acknowledged one supreme deity, whom they called Esus; expressed the most profound veneration for the leaves, fruit, and mistletoe of the oak; and usually performed their devotion in sacred groves, woods, or forests. They also worshipped, as inferior deities, Jupiter, Mars, or Odin, Mercury, Venus, Diana, &c.; and they sometimes sprinkled their altars with human blood.

Germany, like Gaul, was divided into tribes, each of which had an independent government. They held their national councils at least once a year, when they deliberated concerning peace or war, the nomination of officers both civil and military, the sending out of colonies or auxiliaries, and all other matters of importance.

In those states which were under a monarchical government, no appeal was made to the sovereign on subjects of a public concern; neither did he receive any other revenue than a part of the fines and such voluntary offerings as the

people thought fit to make of their cattle, or the fruits of the earth. The expences of the sovereign, however, were proportionably small, as all his subjects, capable of bearing arms, were obliged to follow him to battle. The subjects were divided into several ranks, such as nobles, free-born, freedmen, and bondmen; in each of which classes those were most esteemed who had signalized themselves by their prudence or heroism.

This country was subjugated by the Romans. It was afterwards conquered by Charlemagne, whom the pope declared emperor, and who fixed his imperial residence in Germany.

Questions on the History of Germany.

By what was Germany anciently bounded, and how do Caesar and Tacitus describe this country? What did the Romans introduce and instruct?

From whom were the Germans descended, and what was their religion?

How was Germany divided? When were held the national councils, and on what did they deliberate?

In states under a monarchical government, was there any appeal to the sovereign, and what was the nature of the revenue which he received? Were the people obliged to follow their king to battle, and into what ranks were the subjects divided?

By whom was this country subjugated, and by whom afterwards conquered?

BRITAIN.

GREAT Britain, which comprehends the kingdoms of England and Scotland, and the principality of Wales, was also anciently denominated Albion, from the whiteness of its cliffs or its inhabitants. It is situated between the fiftieth and fifty-ninth degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean; on the west by the Vergivian or Irish Sea; on the east by the German Ocean; and on the south by the British Channel. The southern parts of this island are said to have been first peopled by the Gauls; and the more northern inhabitants to have come originally from Germany. The Picts, who occupied the eastern part of the country, which lay to the northward of the Tyne, are said to have migrated from Scythia, and formed a settlement in Britain. Bede asserts, that the Scots came from Ireland, under the conduct of a

chief called Reuda, and made themselves masters of certain territories in the country of the Picts.

According to Julius Cæsar and others, the country was well peopled, and abundantly stocked with cattle. The towns, or rather villages, were composed of wretched huts, which were constructed of reeds or wood, and situated at a small distance from each other, and generally in the centre of a wood. The inhabitants stained their bodies with the juice of woad, of an azure colour, and wore long hair; but they shaved the rest of their bodies, except the upper lip. Their usual food consisted of milk, fruits, and game. They wore no other raiment than was absolutely necessary for the preservation of decency; and they made use of copper or iron plates, weighed by a certain standard, to supply the place of money.

The religion of the ancient Britons was nearly similar to that of their neighbours the Gauls. The civil government of this island also bore a striking resemblance to that of Gaul; for the whole country was divided into several small states, each of which was governed by a chief, whom authors have generally dignified with the regal title. That part which comprehends the kingdom of England, and the principality of Wales, was anciently divided into seventeen little states, the inhabitants of which were called Danmonii, Durotriges, Belgæ, Attrebatii, Regni, Cantii, Dobuni, Cattiuchlani, Trinobantes, Iceni, Coritani, Cornavii, Silures, Dimetæ, Ordovices, Brigantes, and Ottadini. Those who resided beyond the two friths are denominated by Dio Cassius, Mæatæ and Caledonii; and Ammianus Marcellinus mentions "the Picts, under which name are comprehended the Dicalidones and the Vecturiones, the Attacotti likewise, a warlike nation, and the Scotti, roaming about, committing great devastations."

Julius Cæsar having subjugated all the warlike nations on the opposite coast, conceived the design of bringing the Britons also under the dominion of Rome. However, he does not conceal the dangers to which the valour of this people exposed him, and confesses that, without their intestine discords and misunderstandings, he could never have subdued them. After building castles and forts in those districts which had submitted, the Romans used every possible means to habituate the natives to the arts of peace. The Britons, therefore, after being subjected to the Roman yoke, though greatly increased in numbers, and

improved in point of domestic enjoyment, became feeble and effeminate.

On the invasion of the Roman empire by the Goths and Vandals, the Britons were left to themselves; and being attacked by the Picts, whom they were unable to repel, they requested the assistance of the Saxons, one of the most warlike tribes of Germany (A. D. 450). According to the Saxons, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, landed in Britain; and after defeating the Scots and Picts, they conceived the design of appropriating their conquests to the aggrandisement of their own nation. Other Saxons arrived soon after; and thus was established, after an obstinate contest of nearly one hundred and fifty years, the heptarchy, or seven Saxon kingdoms in Britain. The southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall had now totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions.

Questions on the History of Britain.

What does Great Britain comprehend, and by what was it anciently denominated? Where is it situated, and by what bounded? By whom were the southern and northern parts originally peopled? What part did the Picts occupy, and whence are they said to have migrated? Whence, says Bede, came the Scots?

What do Julius Cæsar and others say of the country? Of what were the towns or villages composed, and where situated? With what did the inhabitants stain their bodies, and what was their food? What was their currency, and what supplied the place of money?

What was the religion and civil government, and into what number of states were the kingdom of England and the principality of Wales anciently divided? What were those denominated who lived beyond the two fiths, and whom does Ammianus Marcellinus mention?

What design did Julius Cæsar conceive, and how did he subdue the Britons? To what did the Romans endeavour to habituate the natives, and what did the Britons become?

When were the Britons left to themselves, and whose assistance did they request against the Picts? What was the conduct of the Saxons, and when was the heptarchy established? What had the southern part of the island now changed?

HUNS.

THE posterity of the Albanians having migrated from their native country, established themselves in that part of Asiatic Sarmatia, which bordered on the Palus Mæotis and

the Tanais, the ancient boundary between Europe and Asia. They were divided into several tribes, but were all comprised under the general name of Ugri* which was afterwards changed into that of Hunni.

Historians describe the Sarmatian or Scythian Huns as a hardy, warlike, and ferocious people, who subsisted entirely on roots or raw meat; professed the utmost contempt for raiment, houses, and other conveniences of life; and destitute of civil and religious institutions, abandoned themselves without restraint to the gratification of their unruly passions. Their first excursion in quest of new settlements, was about A. D. 376, when having passed the Palus Mæotis, they made a dreadful slaughter among the Alans, Ostrogoths, and Visigoths, and took possession of that vast tract of country which extends from the Tanais to the Danube.

The Nephthalite or White Huns inhabited a rich tract of territory at a considerable distance from the Sarmatian Huns, with whom they had neither affinity nor intercourse. They lived according to their own laws, dealt equitably with each other, and, unless provoked, seldom made inroads into the territories of their neighbours.

Attila, king of the Huns, having subjugated most of the neighbouring nations, conceived the daring design of seizing the Roman empire; and passing the Danube, he made himself master of several cities and fortresses, ravaged the country with fire and sword, and compelled Theodosius to conclude a peace on disadvantageous terms. In the reign of Charles the Great, the Huns were possessed of Dacia, Mœsia, and both the Pannonias, and were finally subdued by that prince, about the year 794. From the Ugri, the ancient general name of the Huns, is derived the modern appellation of Hungarians.

Questions on the History of the Huns.

Where did the posterity of the Albanians establish themselves? under what name were they comprised? and what does the word *Ugre* signify?

How do historians describe the Sarmatian or Scythian Huns? when was their first excursion, and of what country did they take possession?

* The word *Ugre*, whence *Ugri* is derived, signifies, in the Slavonic language, aquatic, or living in the water—a name well adapted to a nation residing in the marshy places which bordered on the Palus Mæotis and the Tanais.

Where did the Nephthalite or White Huns inhabit, and what was their mode of life?

Of what did Attila conceive the design, and to what did he conquer Theodosius? In the reign of Charles the Great what did the Huns possess, and by whom were they finally subdued? From what is derived the modern appellation of Hungarians?

GOTHS.

THE Goths are said to have come originally from Scandinavia; but the time of their emigration is uncertain. Northern writers call the peopling of the Chersonesus, the island in the Baltic Sea, and of the adjacent places on the continent, the first migration of the Goths or Getae. Their second happened several ages after, under the conduct of Berig, who seized on the country of the Ulmer-gians, now Pomerania, and compelled even the neighbouring Vandals to share their possessions with his followers. From Pomerania a numerous colony was sent into Scythia, and, in process of time, returned into Germany.

The Goths were famed, even in the earliest ages, for their hospitality and kindness to strangers. They encouraged philosophy; and their women were virtuous and exemplary in their conduct. However, polygamy was universally countenanced among them; and they committed many unwarrantable depredations on the territories of their neighbours. They wore high shoes made of untanned hides, green cassocks with a red border, and gaiters of various colours, scarcely reaching to their knees. Their principal weapons were bearded lances, and missile hatchets. Their government was monarchical; and their religion similar to that of the other northern nations.

Under Alaric, the Goths took and plundered Rome (A. D. 395). Ataulphus, the successor of Alaric, first introduced the power of the Goths into Spain; and, without losing sight of that country, Vallia, the next king of the Goths, fixed his seat of empire at Toulouse. Theodoric II. seized upon almost all that belonged to the Romans in Gaul; and his son, Theodoric III., made himself master of all Italy, took Ravenna after a siege of three years, and put Odoacer to death (A. D. 488). The Franks unanimously rose in arms against his descendants, and terminated the dominion of the Goths in Gaul, who fixed their royal seat at Toledo in Spain.

Questions on the History of the Goths.

Whence came the Goths or Getae, and whither was their first migration? When happened their second, and on what countries did they seize?

For what were the Goths famed? what did they encourage? and what was the character of their women? Was polygamy countenanced, and did they commit depredations?

What achieved the Goths under Alaric, and what under Ataulphus, and under Vallia? What achieved Theodoric II., and Theodoric III.? Who terminated the dominion of the Goths in Gaul, and where did they fix their royal seat?

VANDALS.

ACCORDING to the most credible historians, the Vandals* were originally a Gothic nation, who came out of Scandinavia with the other Goths, and settled in the countries now known by the names of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Afterwards, another colony fixed their habitations in Pomerania; and, in process of time, they extended themselves into Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Dacia. They attacked Greece, whence they went even to Spain; and from that country, under the famous Genseric, passed over into Africa, where for some time they fixed the throne of their power. This prince reduced Carthage, Sardinia, Sicily, and all the islands between Italy and Africa. In the year of the Christian era 475, Genseric concluded a peace with the emperor Zeno, whom he compelled to renounce all claim to the provinces of Africa.

However, the emperor Justinian gained a complete victory over the Vandals, and re-united the provinces of Africa to the Greek empire.

Questions on the History of the Vandals.

Who were the Vandals, and what does the name Vandals signify? Where did they fix their habitations, and whither did they extend themselves? Whither did they pass over under the famous Genseric? what islands did he reduce? and to what did he compel the emperor Zeno?

What did Justinian effect?

* The name Vandals originates in a Gothic word signifying to wander. They were Goths by origin, and Vandals by habit.

SUEVES.

IN the time of Cæsar, the Sueves* were numbered among the most warlike nations of Germany, and agreed in customs and manners with the other inhabitants of that extensive country. Their situation is said to have been between the Elbe and the Vistula. Tiberius transported some thousands of them into Gaul, and assigned lands to others beyond the Danube. They formed a kingdom in the vicinity of the towns of Merida, Seville, and Carthagena, which, in the year 585, was reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy, by Leovigild, king of the Visigoths, after it had subsisted one hundred and seventy-four years.

Questions on the History of the Sueves.

What does the name Sueves signify, and what were the Sueves reckoned in the time of Cæsar? Where was their situation, and whether did Tiberius transport some thousands of them? Where did they form a kingdom, and when and by whom was it reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy?

FRANKS.

THE Franks were a motley people of several ancient nations, dwelling beyond the Rhine, who, having entered into a confederacy against the Romans, assumed the name of Franks, which, in their own language, signifies *Frea*. In ancient history many nations are comprised under one general denomination. At a very early period, they inhabited a tract of territory, which comprehends the present provinces of Westphalia, Hesse, and some adjacent states; and in the process of time, they extended themselves along the Rhine, as far as the efflux of that river and the ocean.

They were hospitable to strangers, but much addicted to treachery; unmindful of the most solemn engagements, and troublesome neighbours. They committed many depredations in Gaul, and penetrated even into Spain, which they held in subjection for the space of twelve years. Pharamond, the son of Marcomir, reigned

* The name Sueves is also derived from a word signifying a wandering life.

over the Franks from the year 417 to 428, and was one of the most powerful princes among them. His son and successor, Clodio, was an illustrious and patriotic sovereign, and extended his conquests as far as the Somme, and also destroyed Treves, and seized on Cologne. Merovæus, who succeeded him, advanced as far as the Seine, and from him the first race of French kings received the name of Merovingian. His son and successor, Childeric, extended his conquests as far as the Loire, reduced the cities of Paris and Angers, and made himself master of Orleans. He was succeeded by his son Clovis, or Clodovæus, about the year 482.

Questions on the History of the Franks.

Who were the Franks, and what did the name import? Who are comprised under this general denomination? Where did they inhabit?

What were their character and conduct, and how long did Pharamond reign over them? What was the character of Clodio, and whither did he extend his conquests? Whither advanced Merovæus, and who received from him the name of Merovingian? Whither did Childeric extend his conquests, and by whom was he succeeded?

BURGUNDIANS.

THE Burgundians are supposed by Orosius, Ammianus Marcellinus, and other writers, to have descended originally from the Roman soldiers who were appointed to guard the interior of Germany, after the inhabitants had been subdued by Drusus Nero, and his brother Tiberius, the adopted sons of Augustus. However, Pliny the Elder conceives them to have been a German nation, descended from the Vindili, or Vandals. They were the least warlike of all the tribes who inhabited Germany. The greatest part of them were mechanics, and, previously to their settling in Gaul, carried into that country the products of their ingenuity and industry.

In the year 274, they made an irruption into Gaul, and reduced upwards of seventy cities, but were driven out by Probus with considerable loss. After many attempts, they arrived in Alsace, reached the mountains of Savoy and St. Claude, and at length fixed the seat of their government at Vienne, in Dauphiny, which they afterwards

extended to Dijon and Macon, for them, called Burgundy. Childebert of the Franks, invaded the territory, obliged Gondemar, their sovereign, to a precipitate flight; and made the kingdom.

Questions on the History of

From whom were the Burgundians of character, and what their occupation?

Whither did they make an irruption, out of Gaul? Where at length did they settle, and what was the country called? Who made themselves masters of the kingdom?

ALEMANS

This nation, who made their first appearance in the year 214, are said to have been, originally, consisting of several nations; their territories are placed by certain writers in the kingdom of Wirtemberg. They were famous for their bravery and equestrian skill, and had a mountable hatred to the idea of being subject to the Roman territories with them, and, on the destruction of the Western Empire, they settled by force of arms in that province, and named Alsace. Hence they marched into the cunda, which they wasted with fire, and were suddenly attacked and defeated by the Franks, who transported them between the Alps and the Danube. The Alemans were without any king, and were subject partly to the Ostrogoths in Italy, and partly to the Franks in Gaul.

Questions on the History of

Who were the Alemans, and where were they? What was their character, and where did they settle? Whither did they thence march, and how were they treated by the Franks? What was the condition of the Alemans at that time?

GEPIDÆ.

THE Gepidæ were a Gothic nation, and had the same customs, manners, religion, and language, as the Goths and Vandals. They entered Scythia with the other Goths, and formed a settlement in the vicinity of the Tanais and Palus Mæotis. They encountered the Burgundians of Italy and the Lombards, and were finally subdued by the latter to whom they lived in subjection.

Questions on the History of the Gepidæ.

Who were the Gepidæ, and in what were they assimilated to the Goths and Vandals? Where did they form a settlement? Whom did they encounter, and by whom were they finally subdued?

HERULI.

THE Heruli were originally a Gothic nation, who inhabited the countries beyond the Danube till the year 491, when many of them were destroyed by the Lombards, and the survivors settled in Pomerania, and then removed into North Dacia; but being oppressed by the Gepidæ, the Romans permitted them to cross the Danube, and allowed them certain lands in Thrace. Others of them established themselves without opposition on the peninsula of Scandinavia.

Among the Heruli, when persons had attained a certain age, they were placed on a pile of wood, put to death, and their bodies burnt to ashes. When a man died, his wife either strangled herself on his tomb, or became an object of universal contempt; and human sacrifices were frequently offered to appease the gods of the country. After the death of the emperor Justinian, the kingdom of the Heruli was destroyed, and themselves were entirely subjugated by the Lombards.

Questions on the History of the Heruli.

Who were the Heruli, and where did they inhabit? Where did the survivors settle, whither remove, and what did the Romans allow them? Where did others establish themselves?

What was done to persons who had attained a certain age? When a man died, what became of his wife, and what were offered to appease the gods? When and by whom was the kingdom of the Heruli destroyed, and themselves entirely subjugated?

MARCOMANS.

THE Marcomans originally resided near the springs of the Danube, whence they removed, under their king Marobodus, into the country of the Boians or Bohemia. Their customs, manners, and religion, were the same as those of the other German nations; and their principal characteristics were an insatiable thirst of military fame, and an unconquerable abhorrence of slavery.

Questions on the History of the Marcomans.

Where did the Marcomans originally reside, and whither did they remove? In what were they assimilated to the other German nations, and what were their principal characteristics?

QUADIANS.

THE Quadians were a warlike people, who inhabited the country now called Moravia, and who resembled all the other German tribes in their customs, manners, and religion. After the year 407, they entirely disappeared, and were probably mingled and confounded with the Gauls.

Questions on the History of the Quadians.

What were the Quadians, where did they inhabit, and in what did they resemble all the other German tribes? When did they entirely disappear, and with whom were they probably mingled?

SARMATIANS.

THIS numerous and warlike nation possessed the extensive tract of land, which comprehends the present Poland, Russia, and great part of Tartary. The Sarmatians appear to have been divided into several tribes, each of which was governed by its own king. The same depravity and vices are attributed to them as to the Heruli. The emperor Marcian permitted them to settle in Mœsia, Pannonia, and the other provinces bordering on the Danube; and they were eventually subdued by the Goths.

Questions on the History of the Sarmatians.

What tract of land did the Sarmatians possess? Into what were they divided, and how governed? What vices are attributed to them? Where did the emperor Marcian permit them to settle, and by whom were they subdued?

 DACIANS.

THE Dacians were a Gothic nation, who resided originally in the country which now comprehends Moldavia, Wallachia, and part of Transylvania, whence they were afterwards transplanted into Illyricum. They were deemed the most formidable of all the northern nations, not only on account of their extraordinary strength and bravery, but also from their considering death as the termination of misery, and the commencement of incomparable felicity. Their government was monarchical. The emperor Trajan, provoked at their hostile proceedings against his subjects, defeated them in several engagements, and reduced their kingdom to the condition of a Roman province. They were obliged to live subject to the Romans till the year 274, when the greatest part of their country was seized by the Goths, and most of the inhabitants were dispersed among the neighbouring barbarians, with whom they gradually became incorporated.

Questions on the History of the Dacians.

Who were the Dacians, where did they originally reside, and whither were they transplanted? What was their character, and what their form of government? By whom was their kingdom reduced to a Roman province? Till what time did they live subject to the Romans? on what did the Goths seize? and what was the fate of the inhabitants?

 BULGARIANS.

THIS numerous and warlike nation is said to have come, about the year 485, from Asiatic Scythia to the Tanais, and to have removed thence to the banks of the Danube. Having made an irruption into Thrace and Macedonia, they formed an establishment in the territory bounded by the Black Sea, Romania, and Macedonia; and from thus

centre, for more than five hundred years, they attacked the Greek empire on all sides, and seized and secured the duchy of Benevento, in Italy. At length, the emperor Basilus completely subjugated Bulgaria, about the year of the Christian era 1017, but permitted the Bulgarians to live under their own kings, whom he obliged to pay tribute to the emperors of Constantinople.

In 1257, Stephen, the fourth king of Hungary, having defeated the Bulgarians, compelled them to acknowledge him as their sovereign; and hence Stephen and his successors were called "Kings of Hungary and Bulgaria;" and this title, with the Hungarian kingdom, passed to the princes of the house of Austria. About the year 1369, Bulgaria became subject to the Turks, and was reduced to a province of the Turkish empire by Bajazet.

Questions on the History of the Bulgarians.

Whence, about what time, and whither, came this numerous people? Where did they form an establishment, and on what did they seize? When and by whom was Bulgaria subjugated, and how were the Bulgarians permitted to live?

Who compelled the Bulgarians to acknowledge him as their sovereign? what were Stephen and his successors called? and to whom did this title, with the Hungarian kingdom, pass? By whom was Bulgaria reduced to a province of the Turkish empire?

OSTROGOTHS.

THE Goths, previously to their leaving Scandinavia, were called Visigoths and Ostrogoths, or Western and Eastern Goths, from their situation to the west and east: the former inhabiting that part of Scandinavia which borders on Denmark, and the latter the more eastern parts near the Baltic.

(A. D. 490.) Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, having defeated Odoacer and subdued Italy, was acknowledged sovereign of that country, and fixed his residence at Ravenna. His conduct and moderation were exemplary. Having sworn, on assuming the crown, that the Italians should never repent of their having submitted to the Goths, he kept his word, and committed the administration of justice to the most able and upright men. He sometimes

attended the pleadings, and passed judgment himself. He revised the collection of imposts, and examined into the complaints of his subjects. He shewed the greatest respect for religion, and did honour to his faith by the practice of temperance, chastity, and other Christian virtues. He was also charitable to the poor, particularly widows and orphans, and generously redeemed as many of his subjects as he possibly could from captivity among barbarous nations. His conduct, however, to Boëtius, a man of extraordinary learning and abilities, sensibly diminished the lustre of all his other actions. Boëtius had translated the works of Aristotle, Pythagoras, Nicomachus, Euclid, Archimedes, and Plato, into the Latin language, and was equally venerated by every good man for his erudition and morality; but, being accused of treasonable practices, he was unjustly banished to Pavia, with his father-in-law Symmachus, and soon after put to death. Theodoric was soon convinced of his injustice, and abandoned himself to such inordinate grief as occasioned his death, in the seventy-second year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign. Theodoric having, at the time of his death, two grandsons, Amalaric, king of the Visigoths, and Athalaric, son of Amalasuntha, delivered up to the former all the countries belonging to the Visigoths in Spain and Gaul, and declared the latter his successor in Italy, and in all his other dominions.

As Athalaric was too young to assume the government, his mother Amalasuntha took charge of the public affairs, and acted with great prudence and equity. The young prince, however, was no sooner released from the restraint of his tutors, than he abandoned himself to such debaucheries as put a period to his life. Amalasuntha now deemed it indispensably necessary to take a colleague in the government, and made choice of Theodotus, who was a man of great erudition, and descended from the illustrious house of Amal; but, unfortunately, he was destitute of gratitude, honour, or probity. The ill-fated Amalasuntha was banished to a solitary island in the lake Bolsena, and there cruelly put to death.

To revenge the murder of this princess, who had always testified her regard to the government of Constantinople, the emperor Justinian sent his general Belisarius against the Ostrogoths, who deposed and put to death their cowardly king Theodotus, and raised to the throne one Vitiges.

who, though of mean extraction, had acquired a considerable degree of celebrity by his prudence and valour (A. D. 536.) Belisarius soon made himself master of Rome; and Vitiges, after taking the city of Milan, called in the Franks to his assistance. That people, however, fell equally on both parties, and, after pillaging Italy, returned laden with booty. The Ostrogoths, now tired of the war, offered the crown to Belisarius, who pretended to accept the offer, and was admitted into the city of Ravenna, as king of Italy. The Roman army appeared so inconsiderable on this occasion, that the Gothic women spat in the faces of their husbands, and branded them with the disgraceful epithet of cowards.

On the departure of Belisarius, the Goths, in the course of a year, set up, deposed, and put to death, two kings. They then elected Totila, who defeated the Romans both by sea and land, took and dismantled Naples, and invested the city of Rome, of which, after having besieged it for some time, he at length made himself master (A. D. 547.) Totila intended to demolish the walls of Rome, but was dissuaded from his purpose by Belisarius, whom the emperor Justinian had again sent into Italy, and who, after repossessing himself of Rome, defeated the Ostrogoths in several engagements (A. D. 550). However, Totila again made himself master of that city, but was completely defeated by Narses, and slain by a commander of the Gepidæ. This prince has been highly and justly commended for his valour, temperance, equity, and humane behaviour to the vanquished.

He was succeeded by Teia, who, though brave, was unlike Totila in justice and humanity (A. D. 553). This sovereign was killed in battle with the Romans, who permitted the Ostrogoths to retire peaceably with all their effects, or retain their Italian possessions as subjects of the empire. Thus ended the dominion of the Ostrogoths in Italy, after they had reigned sixty-four years in that country.

Questions on the History of the Ostrogoths.

By what names were the Goths distinguished, in regard to their situation in Scandinavia? What part inhabited the Visigoths, and what the Ostrogoths?

Of what country was Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, acknowledged sovereign, and where did he fix his residence? What was his conduct,

and how did he keep his oath to the Italians? What did he attend, and what did he revise, and into what examine? What was his respect for religion, and what his practice? How did he treat the poor and such of his subjects as were in captivity? What diminished the lustre of all his other actions? What works had Boëtius translated, and for what and by whom was he venerated? Of what was he accused, and what was his fate? What occasioned the death of Theodoric, and to whom did he leave his dominions?

Who took charge of the public affairs, and to what did Athalaric abandon himself? Whom did Amalasuntha take as a colleague in the government, and what was the character of Theodotus? Whither was Amalasuntha banished, and what was her fate?

By whom was Theodotus deposed and put to death, and whom did the Ostrogoths raise to the throne? Of what city did Belisarius make himself master, and whom did Vitiges call in to his assistance? What was the conduct of the Franks, and to whom did the Ostrogoths offer the crown? Why did the Gothic women treat their husbands with indignity, and brand them with the epithet of cowards?

What kings, in the course of a year, did the Goths set up and put to death, and whom did they then elect? Whom did Totila defeat, and of what make himself master? Who dissuaded Totila from destroying the walls of Rome, and by whom were the Ostrogoths defeated? By whom was Totila completely defeated, and by whom slain? and what was his character?

By whom was he succeeded, and what was the character of Teia? How was Teia killed, and what did the Romans permit the Ostrogoths? When ended the dominion of the Ostrogoths in Italy?

LOMBARDS.

THE Lombards, leaving Scandinavia, their original country, attacked and vanquished the Vandals in Scoringa, and afterwards migrated into Mauringa, and thence into Gothland. In the reign of their king Adoinus the Lombards were masters of the champaign country bordering on the Danube, and many of them fixed their abode in Pannonia.

(A. D. 553.) On the demise of Adoinus, his son Alboinus succeeded to the sovereignty, and gained some important advantages over the Gepidæ, whose king he slew with his own hand, and, according to the custom of savage warriors, caused his skull to be converted into a drinking cup. In the space of three years, this prince rendered himself master of all that territory which comprehended Venetia, Liguria, Umbria, Æmilia, and Etruria, and was proclaimed king of Italy amidst the acclamations of his followers. He made choice of Pavia for the metropolis of his new kingdom, and in each of the cities which he had

reduced, placed a strong garrison, under the command of an officer, whom he honoured with the title of duke.

On the death of Alboinus, who was assassinated by command of his queen Rosamund, the Lombards elected for their king, Clephus, a man of known valour and abilities. This prince extended his conquests to the very gates of Rome, but was murdered by his own subjects, whose hatred he had incurred by the cruelty of his disposition. The Lombards now resolved to abolish the monarchical form of government; but after living for the space of ten years under their dukes, or commanders of cities, they raised to the throne Autharis, the son of Clephus (A. D. 585), who assumed the name of Flavius, which he ordered to be used by all his successors. This prince obliged the dukes to contribute a moiety of their revenues toward the maintenance of his regal dignity, and enacted various salutary laws for the benefit of his subjects. He subdued the province of Samnium, and the city of Benevento, and projected the reduction of Rome and of the exarchate of Ravenna, but was taken off by poison after a reign of six years.

(A. D. 590.) Agilulf, duke of Turin, who possessed extraordinary merit, was next raised to the throne, and, at the request of his queen Theudelinda, embraced the Catholic faith. (A. D. 615.) On the death of Agilulf, his son Adalwald was invested with the regal title; but being persuaded to put twelve of the Lombard nobles to death, he and his mother were instantly deposed, the former of whom was taken off by poison, and the latter fell a victim to unconquerable grief.

The nobility now placed on the throne Ariovald, duke of Turin, who had espoused the daughter of the deposed king, and whose reign was marked by public tranquility both at home and abroad. On his death, the Lombards elected to the sovereignty Rotharis, duke of Brescia, who has been commended equally for his valour, equity, and moderation (A. D. 636). He undertook the promulgation of written laws; augmented his dominions by the reduction of all the cities in Venetia, hitherto held by the Romans; and, after a glorious reign of sixteen years, died in the full possession of his people's affections. He left his kingdom to his son Rodoald, who followed not the example of his father, and was assassinated by a Lombard whose wife he had seduced. Aripert reign-

ed nine years, and divided the kingdom between his two sons Partharit and Gundebert, the former of whom fixed his residence at Milan, and the latter at Pavia.

(A. D. 660.) Grimoald, duke of Benevento, finding himself stronger than either of the two brothers, united both treachery and cunning to gain possession of the whole kingdom. He murdered Gundebert in his own palace at Pavia: and Partharit, on being informed of this atrocious act, left Milan, and escaped into Gaul. (A. D. 663). Grimoald wore the crown more honourably than he had acquired it; and, having completely defeated the emperor Constans, improved his victory by the reduction of several places of importance.

(A. D. 672.) On the death of Grimoald, Partharit returned, and associated with him in the kingdom his son Cunipert, whom he had left behind him. Cunipert was driven from the throne by Alachis, duke of Trent, but restored by the principal men among the Lombards, and died universally lamented by his subjects (A. D. 703). He was succeeded by his son Luitbert, who was a minor under the tutelage of Asprand, a person of great distinction; but Ragumbert, duke of Turin, caused himself to be proclaimed king of the Lombards, after having defeated Asprand in a pitched battle; and Ragumbert dying soon after, his son Aripert, by whom he was succeeded, ordered the lawful heir to be stifled in a bath. However, Asprand drove from the throne Aripert, the son of the usurper, and was invested with the regal dignity by the unanimous consent of the people.

(A. D. 722.) Luitprand, the son and successor of Asprand, led his forces against Ravenna, which he reduced by storm, but which Gregory II., bishop of Rome, assisted in retaking from him. This prince was equitable and munificent, always treated his subjects as his own children, and his only faults resulted from an insatiate desire of conquest. He was succeeded by his grandson Hildebrand, whom the Lombards deposed on account of his inability to govern, and bestowed the sovereignty on Rachis, duke of Friuli (A. D. 743). This prince was universally esteemed for the suavity of his disposition, and the sanctity of his manners; but after reigning a few years, he renounced his kingdom, and retired to the monastery of Monte Cassino, where he died.

(A. D. 751.) On the resignation of Rachis, the Low-

barbs bestowed the crown on his brother Astulphus, who was admired equally for his courage in action, and his prudence in council; and who, after reducing Ravenna and some other places, threatened to plunder Rome. The pope, greatly alarmed, prevailed on Pepin, king of France, to espouse his cause by making war on the Lombards. Accordingly, Pepin entered Italy at the head of a numerous army, and compelled Astulphus to restore Ravenna and the other places which he had taken.

(A. D. 756.) On the demise of this prince, Desiderius, duke of Tuscany, assumed the regal title, and married his two daughters to Charles (afterwards called Charlemagne or Charles the Great) and Carloman, who had succeeded Pepin on the throne of France. However, Desiderius having a dispute with Adrian the pope, Charlemagne entered Italy, and attacked the Lombards with such irresistible fury, that they fled before him in the utmost consternation. Desiderius took refuge in Pavia, and was compelled, after a long and obstinate resistance, to surrender the city to the royal besieger, who sent him and his unfortunate family prisoners to France, and abolished the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after they had possessed that country for the space of two hundred and six years (A. D. 774).

Questions on the History of the Lombards.

When the Lombards left Scandinavia, whom did they vanquish, and whither migrate? Of what were they masters in the reign of their king Adomus?

By whom was he succeeded, and of what savage act was Alboinus guilty to the king of the Gepids? Of what territory did Alboinus render himself master, and of what country was he proclaimed king? What city did he select for the metropolis of his new kingdom, and what did he place in each of the other cities?

On the death of Alboinus, whom did the Lombards elect for their king, and what was the character of Clephus? Whither did he extend his conquests, and by whom was he murdered? What did the Lombards now resolve to abolish, and whom after ten years did they raise to the throne? What name did Autharis assume, and what did he order? To what did he oblige the dukes, and what laws did he enact? What province and city did he subdue, and what did he project?

Who was the next raised to the throne, and what faith did Agilulf embrace? On the death of Agilulf who was invested with the regal title, and what was the fate of Adalwald and his mother?

Whom did the nobility now place on the throne, and by what was the reign of Ariovald marked? On his death, whom did the Lombards elect to the sovereignty, and what was the character of Rotharis? What were

his actions, and in the full possession of what did he die? To whom did he leave his kingdom, and what was the conduct of Rodoald? How long reigned Aripert, and between whom did he divide the kingdom?

What did Grimoald, duke of Benevento, unite to gain possession of the whole kingdom, and what was the fate of Gundebert and of Partharit? How did Grimoald wear the crown, and what did he achieve?

When returned Partharit, and whom did he associate with him in the kingdom? What vicissitudes did Cunipert experience? By whom was he succeeded, and how was Luitprand put to death? What effected Asprand, and with what was he invested?

What were the actions of Luitprand, the son and successor of Asprand, and what was his character? By whom was he succeeded? on what account did the Lombards depose Hildebrand? and on whom did they bestow the sovereignty? What was the character of Rachis, and when did he renounce his kingdom?

On whom did the Lombards bestow the crown, and what were the character and actions of Astulphus? On whom prevailed the pope to espouse his cause, and what did Pepin compel Astulphus to restore?

On the demise of this prince who assumed the regal title, and to whom did Desiderius marry his two daughters? Why did Charlemagne enter Italy, and attack the Lombards? Where did Desiderius seek refuge, and what was the fate of him and his family, and of the kingdom of the Lombards?

CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX.

Years before Christ.

- 4004 CREATION of the world, and of Adam and Eve; their fall and expulsion from Eden.
- 4002 Birth of Cain, the first born of a woman.
- 3074 Death of Adam, aged 930.
- 2348 The UNIVERSAL DELUGE, from which Noah and his family were saved in the ark.
- 2247 The building of the tower of Babel followed by the dispersion of mankind over the earth.
- 2040 Reign of Mœris, king of Thebes, in Upper Egypt, who formed the lake which bears his name, to receive the waters of the Nile.
- 1910 Birth of Ishmael, son of Abraham and Hagar.
- 1897 Destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah by fire from Heaven.
- 1896 Birth of Moab and Ammon, children of Lot by his own daughters.
- 1556 Arrival of Cecrops from Egypt, with a colony, which he settled in Attica, and built a castle, afterwards the citadel of Athens.
- 1491 The Israelites passed through the Red Sea; and Pharaoh and his host were drowned.
[Till this period, Profane History is full of fables.]
- 1104 The Heræclids, or descendants of Hercules, entered Peloponnesus, and greatly changed the state of Greece.
- 1069 Codrus, last king of Athens, reigned 21 years.
- 991 Phorbas, fifth perpetual archon of Athens.
[Till this period, all Profane History is very uncertain.]
- 898 Lycurgus succeeded Polydectes as king of Sparta, but abdicated the throne on the birth of a posthumous child of his brother.
- 888 Dido, sister of Pygmalion, king of Tyre, founded Carthage, and built a citadel.
- 885 Lycurgus promulgated his celebrated laws at Sparta.
- 800 Numitor, king of the Latins, dethroned by his brother Amulius.
- 776 Beginning of the Olympic games, which, returning every fifth year, regulated the chronology of Grecian history.
- 771 Birth of Romulus and Remus, the founders of Rome.
- 754 The office of archon, at Athens, reduced to a term of ten years.
- 752 FOUNDATION of ROME. Romulus the first king, reigned 37 years.
- 732 Triumph of Romulus over the Veii.
- 716 Numa Pompilius chosen king of Rome, and reigned 44 years.
- 684 Annual archons established at Athens.
- 672 Tullus Hostilius chosen king of Rome, and reigned 32 years.

Years before Christ.

- 670 Engagement of the Horatii and the Curiatii, to terminate the war between Alba and Rome.
- 664 Naval engagement between the Corinthians and the inhabitants of Corcyra.
- 651 The kingdom of Cyrene in Africa founded by Battus of Lacedæmon.
- 640 Ancus Martius, fourth king of Rome, reigned 24 years.
- 635 Cyaxares, king of the Medes, who reigned 40 years.
- 624 Draco enacted his sanguinary laws at Athens.
- 616 Tarquinius Priscus, the fifth king of Rome, reigned 38 years.
- 602 Nineveh, the capital of Assyria, destroyed by Cyaxares and Nebuchadnezzar.
- 594 Solon enacted wise laws at Athens.
- 588 Jerusalem taken, and its walls and temple destroyed.
- 578 Servius Tullius, the sixth king of Rome, who reigned 44 years.
- 562 Cræsus reigned in Lydia 14 years.
- 551 Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, born.
- 548 Cyrus reduced Lydia and Asia Minor.
- 538 Babylon taken by Cyrus.
- 534 Tarquin surnamed the Proud, the last king of Rome.
- 529 Death of Cyrus.
- 516 Ostracism introduced among the Athenians.
- 509 Tarquin, the last Roman king, expelled from Rome; royalty abolished, and annual consuls chosen.
- 503 The lesser triumph, called Ovation, introduced at Rome.
- 502 The Ionians defeated by the Persians.
- 496 Darius sent Mardonius against the Greeks.
- 490 The Athenians, under Miltiades, gained a complete victory over the Persians on the plains of Marathon.
- 488 Coriolanus besieged Rome, his native city, but retreated at the request of his mother.
- 480 Greece entered by Xerxes, whose army was bravely resisted by the troops under Leonidas, at the Straits of Thermopylæ, and who, being defeated in a naval engagement near Salamis, returned into Persia, and left Mardonius to continue the war.
- 479 Mardonius defeated and killed by the Greeks near Platea.
- 470 The Persians defeated both by sea and land by Cimon, the son of Miltiades.
- 469 Foundation of Capua by the Tuscans.
- 458 Quintus Cincinnatus taken from the plough and created dictator.
- 451 Creation of the Decemviri at Rome, and compilation of the laws of the Twelve Tables.
- 449 Peace concluded between the Greeks and the Persians, highly advantageous and glorious to Greece.
- Death of Virginia, and abolition of the Roman Decemvirate.
- 432 The Peloponnesians and their allies declared war against the Athenians.
- 429 Death of Pericles, general of the Athenians.
- 427 The Athenians sent a fleet against Syracuse.
- 426 Plague at Athens.
- Demosthenes, general of the Athenians, prosecuted the Peloponnesian war with various success.
- 416 The Athenians undertook the war in Sicily, whither they sent Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamachus.
- 413 The Athenians defeated in Sicily, both by sea and land.

Years before Christ.

- 410 The Lacedæmonians, defeated by sea and land, sued in vain for peace.
- 404 Athens taken by Lysander, in the twenty-eighth and last year of the Peloponnesian war.
- 401 Cyrus made war on his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia, but fell in battle near Babylon.
- 385 Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.
- 379 Victory of the Volsci over the Romans.
- 378 Commencement of the war between the Boeotians and the Lacedæmonians.
- 377 Three Roman armies sent against the Volsci.
- 372 Artaxerxes, king of Persia, endeavoured to mediate in Greece but the Thebans refused to conclude a peace.
- 371 Victory of Epaminondas, the Theban general, over the Lacedæmonians at Leuctra.
- 369 The Athenians and Lacedæmonians defeated by Epaminondas, who penetrated into the heart of Laconia.
- 367 Camillus, for the fifth time dictator of Rome, defeated the Gauls in the plains of Alba.
- 363 Battle of Mantinea, in which the Thebans were victorious, but lost their general Epaminondas.
- 359 Philip, father of Alexander the Great, ascended the throne on the death of his brother Perdiccas III.
- 355 Beginning of the Sacred War in Greece.
- 354 The Phocians and the Locrans subdued by the Thebans.
- 349 Camillus routed the Gauls, and M. Valerius, a military tribune, at the age of 23, killed a Gaul who had challenged any Roman to single combat.
- 347 End of the Sacred War against the Phocians.
- 343 Commencement of the war between the Romans and the Samnites, which lasted 60 years.
- 340 War between the Romans and the Latins.
- 338 Victory of Philip, king of Macedon, over the Greeks at Cheronæa.
- 336 Alexander, surnamed the Great, succeeded his father Philip in the kingdom of Macedon.
- 334 Alexander invaded Asia, and obtained a signal victory over the Persians at the Granicus.
- 333 Alexander gained a second victory at Issus in Cilicia.
- 331 The Persians completely defeated by Alexander at Arbela.
- 330 Alexander seized on Susiana and Persia, and pursued Darius, who was killed by Bessus.
- 329 Alexander adopted the manners and apparel of the Persian kings.
- 324 Alexander gave himself up to intemperance, and died at Babylon without appointing any successor.
- 323 The Athenians and the Ætolians shook off the Macedonian yoke.
- 314 The Samnites defeated by the Romans.
- 310 The Tuscans vanquished, and 80,000 of them put to the sword by Fabius.
- 309 Hamilcar defeated and killed at Syracuse. The Romans gained a considerable victory over the Samnites.
- 308 The Carthaginians defeated by Agathocles.
- 305 The Samnites twice defeated by the Romans.
- 301 Great battle at Ipsus, in Phrygia, in which Antigonus was slain.
- 298 Death of Cassander, king of Macedon, who was succeeded by his eldest son Philip.

Years before Christ.

- 296 The Romans continued with success the war against the Samnites and the Etrurians.
- 294 Demetrius reigned over Macedonia six years.
- 293 The Samnites routed by Papirius, and the Tuscans, by Carvilius.
- 291 Pythian games celebrated at Athens.
- 289 Demetrius expelled from Macedonia.
- 286 Pyrrhus, despised by the Macedonians, abdicated the sovereignty, and was succeeded by Lysimachus, who reigned five years and a half.
- 284 Foundation of the republic of Achaia.
- 282 The Bou defeated by the Romans, and obliged to conclude a peace.
- 279 Ptolemy Ceraunus, king of Macedon, killed by the Gauls. Sosthenes, after expelling the Gauls, accepted the government under the name of general.
- 277 Pyrrhus prosecuted the war against the Carthaginians in Sicily. The Gauls seized Thrace, and levied a contribution on Byzantium.
- 274 Pyrrhus invaded Macedon, and after defeating Antigonus, caused himself to be proclaimed king.
- 272 Pyrrhus killed before Argos.
- 272 The Tarentines, Samnites, and Brutians, defeated by the Romans.
- 270 The Gauls founded the state of Galatia in Asia.
- 264 First Punic war, which lasted 24 years.
- 260 First naval victory obtained by the Romans, under Duilius, over the Carthaginians.
- 256 Attilius Regulus obliged the Carthaginians to a disadvantageous peace.
- 251 Asdrubal being defeated in Sicily, was condemned to death at Carthage.
- 248 The Carthaginians laid waste all the coasts of the Romans.
- 244 Demetrius, second son of Antigonus Gonatus, reigned in Macedon 10 years.
- 241 End of the first Punic war, the Carthaginians obliged to cede all the islands in the Mediterranean, and to pay a tribute for 20 years.
- 225 Great battle between the Gauls and the Romans, in which the former were defeated and lost their king.
- 219 Hannibal subdued Spain as far as the Ebro, and took Saguntum, a city in alliance with the Romans.
- 218 Second Punic war commenced.—Hannibal crossed the Alps with an army of 90,000 foot, and 12,000 horse.
- 217 Flaminius, the Roman consul, defeated and slain with 15,000 men, by Hannibal, near the lake Trasymene.
- 216 Famous victory of Hannibal at Cannæ, in which 40,000 Romans were killed, and 3000 taken prisoners.
- 207 Beginning of the Imperial Dynasty of China, called Han.
- 202 Hannibal entirely defeated by Scipio in Africa, and peace concluded between Rome and Carthage.
- 183 Death of Hannibal, the most inveterate enemy of Rome.
- 178 Perses succeeded his father Philip in the kingdom of Macedon.
- 171 Second war of the Romans against the Macedonians.
- 168 Æmilius Paulus defeated Perses and the Illyrians.
- 159 Death of Eumenes, king of Pergamus, who was succeeded by his son Eumenes.
- 149 Third Punic war.
- 146 Achaia and all Greece reduced to a Roman province; and Carthage destroyed by Scipio.

Years before Christ.

- 138 Death of Attalus, king of Pergamus, who was succeeded by his son Attalus.
- 135 *The Historical Books of the Old Testament, and of the Maccabees, end this year.*
- 123 Carthage ordered to be rebuilt.
Mithridates VI., king of Pontus, began to reign.
- 111 Rome declared war against Jugurtha, king of Numidia.
- 106 Battle between the Romans and the Cimbri and Teutones.
- 96 Death of Ptolemy, king of Cyrene, who bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans.
- 88 The Romans waged war with Mithridates, who seized on Macedon, Thrace, and all Greece.
- 87 Rome besieged and taken by the armies of Cinna, Marius, Carbo, and Sertorius.
- 84 Civil war at Rome with Sylla.
- 79 Sylla abdicated the dictatorship.
- 71 Mithridates defeated by Lucullus, who obliged him to fly to Tigranes in Armenia.
- 67 Lucullus being deserted by his army, Mithridates recovered possession of his dominions.
- 60 First triumvirate between Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.
- 56 Expedition of Cæsar into Germany and Great Britain.
- 49 Civil war between Cæsar and Pompey.
- 48 Battle of Pharsalia in Macedon, in which Pompey was vanquished by Cæsar, and, retiring to Egypt, was put to death by Ptolemy, king of that country.
- 45 Cæsar took the title of emperor, was chosen consul for 10 years, and perpetual dictator.
- 44 Cæsar slain in the senate by a conspiracy, at the head of which was Brutus and Cassius.
- 42 Brutus and Cassius defeated near Philippi, and laid violent hands on themselves.
- 31 Famous battle of Actium in Epirus, in which Augustus was completely victorious.
- 5 Birth of Jesus Christ at Bethlehem.

A. D.

- 14 Tiberius proclaimed emperor at Rome.
- 33 Death of Jesus Christ, who was crucified, and who rose again the third day.
- 37 Caius Caligula ascended the Roman throne, on the death of Tiberius.
- 41 Caius Caligula slain; and the accession of Claudius.
- 45 The victories of Vespasian in Britain.
- 54 Death of Claudius, and accession of Nero.
- 64 Rome set on fire by Nero, who accused and prosecuted the Christians.
- 70 Siege and destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.
- 79 Death of Vespasian, and accession of his son Titus.
- 81 Death of Titus, and accession of his brother Domitian.
- 96 Domitian being slain was succeeded by Nerva.
- 98 Death of Nerva, and accession of Trajan.
- 117 Accession of Adrian to the Roman throne.
- 121 Adrian constructed a wall across Great Britain.
- 138 Death of Adrian, and accession of Antoninus Pius.

A. D

- 161 Death of the emperor Antoninus, and accession of Marcus Aurelius and Ælius Verus.
- 180 Death of Marcus Aurelius, and accession of his son Commodus.
- 193 Death of Commodus Pertinax proclaimed emperor, but murdered by the Prætorian guards, and succeeded by Didius Julianus, who was killed soon after. Severus emperor.
- 209 Wall of Severus built in Britain.
- 210 Death of Severus at York, and accession of his sons Caracalla and Geta.
- 212 Geta murdered by his brother Caracalla, in the arms of his mother.
- 217 Caracalla put to death, and succeeded by Opilius Macrinus.
- 218 Macrinus slain, and succeeded by Heliogabalus.
- 222 Heliogabalus slain, and succeeded by Alexander Severus.
- 244 Gordian, the emperor, put to death by Philip, who succeeded him.
- 249 Decius proclaimed emperor on the death of Philip.
- 251 Death of Decius, and accession of Gallus and his son Volusian.
- 253 Gallus and Volusian slain, and Valerianus acknowledged emperor by the senate, with his son Galienus.
- 268 Death of Galienus, and accession of Claudius II.
- 270 Death of Claudius, and accession of Aurelian.
- 276 Tacitus emperor of Rome.
- 276 Florianus emperor of Rome.
- 277 Probus chosen emperor, on the death of Florianus.
- 282 Marcus Aurelius Carus chosen emperor, after the murder of Probus.
- 283 Carus, killed by a thunder-bolt.
- 284 His sons Carinus and Numerianus succeeded. The latter being murdered, Diocletian was chosen his successor by the army.
- 305 Diocletian and Maximinus resigned the empire in favour of the two Cæsars.
- 306 Constantine saluted emperor by the army.
- 328 Constantine adorned the city of Byzantium, which he made the seat of the empire.
- 337 Death of Constantine the Great, the first Christian emperor, and the empire divided among his three sons.
- 350 Reign of Constantius alone.
- 361 War between Julian and Constantius, and death of the latter.
- 376 The Goths expelled by the Huns, and settled in Thrace by the Romans.
- 393 Honorius proclaimed Augustus.
- 395 Death of Theodosius, the last who ruled the whole Roman empire. Arcadius emperor of the East, and Honorius of the West.
- 402 The Geougen Tartars, or Avars, conquered Great Tartary, by defeating the Huns of the North.
- 407 The Alans, Sueves, and Vandals, penetrated into Gaul, whence they marched into Spain. The Burgundians seized a part of Gaul, and established a kingdom.
- 409 Rome besieged and taken by Alaric, king of the Goths, who gave the city up to plunder.
- 417 Honorius ceded Aquitaine to the Goths, whose king, Vallia, established his court at Toulouse.
- 427 Count Boniface transported the Alans and Vandals into Africa.
- 434 Attila, king of the Huns, invaded the Western empire.
- 439 Genseric seized on Carthage and several towns of Africa.
- 449 The Anglo Saxons invited into Britain, to repel the incursions of the Scots and Picts.

A. D.

- 454 The Vandals ravaged and seized Sicily.
- 456 The emperor Avitus prevailed on Theodoric II., king of the Goths, to enter Spain, and the latter compelled the Sueves to retreat to Lusitania.
- 466 Eutic, king of the Goths, ravaged Spain, and entered Gaul, but was defeated.
- 467 The Sueves seized Coimbra.
- 474 The Saracens took possession of Mesopotamia, and the Huns of Thrace.
- 476 Termination of the Roman empire in the West, by Odoacer, king of the Heruli.
- 488 Odoacer defeated by Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths.
- 492 Odoacer besieged in Ravenna by Theodoric, to whom he capitulated, and who treacherously put him to death.
- 496 The Slavonians seized on Poland and Bohemia.
- 499 The Bulgarians ravaged Thrace, but were prevailed on by presents to withdraw.
- 504 The Bulgarians defeated by Theodoric.
- 506 Alaric, king of the Visigoths, defeated by Clovis at Vouglé, near Poitiers.
- 512 The Heruli occupied lands in the Roman empire.
- 514 Vitthian, chief of the Goths, ravaged Thrace, seized Moesia, and marched to Constantinople, but was induced to withdraw by means of a large sum of money.
- 515 The Huns laid waste Cappadocia and Lycania.
- 523 The Vandals defeated by the Moors, who killed their king.
- 526 Symmachus and his son-in-law, the celebrated Boëtius, put to death by Theodoric.
- 528 Boarax, queen of the Huns, supplied Justinian with troops to guard the Bosphorus against the Barbarians.
- 530 Hildene, king of the Vandals, deposed by his brother Gilimer, against whom the emperor declared war.
- 534 Gilimer led in triumph to Constantinople by Belisarius. End of the domination of the Vandals in Africa.
- 535 Dalmatia and Sicily taken by Belisarius.
- 537 Rome expelled the Goths.
- 538 Illyria laid waste by the Huns.
- 541 Basilus, the last consul chosen at Rome or Constantinople.
- 543 Totila, king of the Goths, having passed the Tiber, seized Campania, Apulia, and Naples.
- 548 The Goths again ravaged Italy.
The Slavonians seized Illyria.
- 552 Narses, general of the Romans, defeated the Goths at sea, and expelled them from Sicily.
Beginning of the Turks, a race of the Huns, who this year conquered Great Tartary.
- 553 Defeat of the Goths, and termination of their dominion.
- 558 The Huns having passed the Danube on the ice, laid waste Moesia, Thrace, and Greece, and threatened Constantinople, but were prevailed on to retire in consideration of a sum of money, and the promise of an annual tribute.
- 561 Belisarius, the celebrated general of the Romans, stripped of all his offices, and imprisoned.
- 568 The Lombards, having left Pannonia, settled in Italy under their king Alboin.

A. D.

- 569 The Lombards seized Liguria and several other provinces.
- 590 The French laid waste Lombardy.
- 596 The Lombards laid waste almost all Italy.
- 615 The Persians over-ran Egypt, took Alexandria, and penetrated into Libya.
- 618 The Avari pillaged the environs of Constantinople.
- 623 The Romans, who had hitherto remained masters of a part of Spain, were driven out of it by the Visigoths.
- 641 Death of the emperor Heraclius, after a reign of more than 30 years.
- 650 The Sclavonians invaded Italy, but were repulsed by the Lombards.
- 662 Grimoald, duke of Beneventum, seized on the kingdom of Lombardy.
- 671 Death of Grimoald, king of the Lombards.
- 678 The Bulgarians, who were so called from the river Wolga, invaded Thrace, settled on the Danube, and gave their name to the province still denominated Bulgaria.
- 680 Wamba, king of the Visigoths, abdicated his throne, and retired to a monastery.
- 711 Luitprand, king of Lombardy, who reigned with glory 31 years and seven months.
- 713 The Bulgarians laid waste all Thrace.
- 739 Luitprand, king of Lombardy, laid siege to Rome, and seized the duchy of Spoletum.
- 753 Rome being again besieged by the Lombards, the pope applied to Pepin, king of France, who caused the siege to be raised.
- 761 The emperor Constantine subdued the Bulgarians.
- 773 Rome being besieged by the Lombards, pope Adrian applied to Charlemagne, who coming into Italy, defeated Desiderius, and took Verona.
- 774 Pavia surrendered to Charlemagne, and Desiderius being taken, was shorn, and sent into France, where he died. Thus ended the kingdom of the Lombards, after it had lasted 206 years. Adrian declared Charlemagne emperor of the West, but required that he should fix his imperial residence in Germany.

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